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Canadian Welfare's Silver Anniversary

READING through the pages which follow, no one we feel sure can fail to be impressed with the progress made since the first World War in meeting the welfare needs of the Canadian people. The most striking single item is Dr. Davidson's contrast between \$85 million of public health and welfare expenditure in 1920 and \$850 million today; but in the private field as well great developments have occurred in the variety and quality of the services provided. Mr. Mackenzie King's article on the evolution of the modern welfare state puts the whole movement toward more comprehensive social security measures in the setting of world trends and basic democratic requirements.

What may be less apparent from these brief reviews but needs to be remembered is the price at which progress has been achieved. The welfare programs we take for granted today did not come into existence of themselves. Somebody's vision and a good many people's devotion and hard work are embodied in each of them. Not a few began as audacious experiments and had to make their way slowly in the face of ignorance, indifference and open opposition. Always there was the need to improve standards of service and to develop administrative procedures at once efficient and humane.

We bring in these considerations here because for one thing they direct attention to the special contribution of *Canadian Welfare* over the past twenty-five years. It is surely not immodest to suggest that this little magazine's persistent program of information and agitation has been a considerable factor in building intelligent support for more adequate social services. Besides, they afford us the opportunity of paying our tribute to the countless pioneers, many of them unremembered individually, interested citizens, social workers and public officials with a deep concern for human welfare who blazed the trail for those of us that follow. In this connection, we think particularly of Dr. Charlotte Whitton, the founder of the magazine, whose courageous and militant leadership of the Canadian Welfare Council through most of this period did so much to arouse public interest and to influence the developments which took place. In every battle she was in the front line and her voice was never silent when there was any question of human need or suffering.

Anniversaries are a time to look backwards; they should also be occasions to look ahead. The record of our achievements to date, however encouraging, affords us no ground for complacency. Our feet are in the right path but it must be apparent to those who care that we have a long way yet to go before freedom from want, let alone welfare's positive goal, the good life in the good community, begins to appear over the horizon. In the pages which follow are reminders of the many social needs of the Canadian people which still remain unmet—housing, adequate economic maintenance, health insurance, to name only three. These indicate some of the milestones of our further advance. *Welfare's* jubilee number is intended to provide perspective on our total task; it will fail of its full purpose unless readers find in it also a compulsion to take up the challenge of the present in the spirit of those who have gone before.

R. E. G. DAVIS.

Welfare and The Modern State

By THE RIGHT HONOURABLE W. L. MACKENZIE KING,
O.M., M.P.

SINCE the first issue of *CANADIAN WELFARE* appeared twenty-five years ago, there have been sweeping changes in conditions throughout the world. In 1924 the nations were just emerging from the aftermath of a great world war. In ever-increasing numbers people were moving from the farms to the cities looking for employment. Under productive methods in large-scale factories, individual human skills were increasingly being replaced by mass employment and the assembly line. Canada did not escape this trend. Our country was rapidly becoming more of an industrial than an agricultural state.

While far-reaching material changes were taking place, a corresponding development in the general social consciousness was much slower in making itself apparent. Nevertheless, there was a growing feeling that the State, which made possible the growth and expansion of industry, had a

responsibility for helping to meet the social and human problems to which it had given rise. Private agencies were being established to meet certain glaring social needs. Governments, responding to the public will, were taking more interest in social security measures. On the whole, however, while tremendous advances had been made in scientific, technological and industrial spheres, in comparison, little had yet been done on this continent to alleviate many old social injustices.

Then, in the early thirties, came the great world-wide depression. Masses of people were thrown out of work. Problems of human relations which had been concealed by the prosperity in the 'twenties rapidly made their appearance.



Twenty-five years leader of the Liberal Party, twenty-one years Prime Minister of Canada, Mr. King started his public career as Canada's first Deputy Minister of Labour. He is the principal creator of Canadian labour legislation, entered public life after spending some time at Jane Addams' Hull House in Chicago, and has throughout his whole career maintained a lively interest in Canadian welfare work.

The existing means for dealing with such violent social disturbances proved to be totally inadequate. There was a failure to appreciate fully that the State had to assume new responsibilities, and that in considerable part only the State could provide the measure of assistance needed to meet the graver social and economic perils. Under the trials of the depression period, real progress was made in the development of a consciousness of social responsibility.

In 1939, came the second World War. The war, while it soon provided jobs for those who were able and willing to work, brought still more strongly to the fore the social injustices that had existed for far too long a time. Men and women were compelled to think deeply on the social problems of life, and the causes of human injustices. There came to be a growing belief in the necessity of a new and better order.

The new order seeks to shift the emphasis from the sacredness of possession to the sacredness of life; to weigh more heavily the values of personality and its rights than the values of property and its rights; and to contrast with natural resources the too long neglected, but much more precious, human resources. The new social order seeks to recognize industry as a public service rather than as a private business, and to stress community well-being rather than individual self-interest. In the modern State, and especially in free parliaments and other democratic

assemblies, the emphasis from now on is certain to be placed more and more upon matters which affect human well-being. There has been much talk in the past of the importance of natural resources and their conservation. Only recently has it come to be realized that of all resources, human resources are most important.

Scientific developments, in particular the release of atomic energy, have placed at the disposition of man a means of great human betterment. There is much to confirm the view that the world has reason to be thankful for the great discoveries that have been made. On the other hand, it must be clear that many of these discoveries may equally be a means of human destruction. As yet, the world is wholly in the dark as to which of the conflicting forces now at work is to prevail. There is but one sure way of making the right prevail. For all countries, it is the same. Here in Canada, our own country, we each can lend strength to the course which we all wish to see followed by doing our utmost to solve our difficult human problems. The State must recognize it also has a part to play, a part in furthering social justice much more definite than it has taken in the past. Private social agencies have also great opportunities and obligations. All, working in co-operation, will help to ensure that mankind moves toward the light of ordered freedom, true progress and enduring peace.

Planning for Public Welfare

CANADIAN public welfare history can properly be said to be an outgrowth of our experience and our awakening social consciousness during the First World War. The date which marks the beginning of public welfare, as we know it now, goes back to January 28, 1916, when the Manitoba Legislature, for the first time in our country's history, gave the vote to women, and followed this up on March 10th of the same year by the passage of the first mothers' allowances legislation in Canada.

This move by Manitoba was followed closely by a number of other provinces—Saskatchewan, Alberta, British Columbia and Ontario—so that by 1920, five of the nine provinces of Canada had enacted mothers' allowances legislation.

Our workmen's compensation legislation, too, was started on its way out of the impetus of the First World War. Ontario had pioneered in 1914. Nova Scotia, Manitoba and British Columbia followed closely after in 1917. Alberta and New Brunswick in 1918 helped to complete the picture as it existed

By **GEORGE F. DAVIDSON**

when *CANADIAN WELFARE* first began its operations.

Child welfare, too, had by this time reached a certain stage of growth under public auspices, although here, of course, the typical Canadian pattern of private agency operation through the Children's Aid Societies prevailed. The Federal Juvenile Delinquents' Act of 1908 had given an even earlier stimulus to the development of juvenile court legislation, the establishment of juvenile courts and the erection and maintenance of corrective institutions, both for boys and girls, in a number of the provinces.

Nor can one overlook the fact that many of our larger municipalities across Canada had by this time undergone their initial "baptism of fire" in the field of relief administration. Pockets of unemployment had appeared disturbingly in several of our larger cities in Canada as early as 1910-11. These emergency relief needs, chiefly seasonal in character, reappeared in the early 20's. The situation on these two occasions

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became serious enough to justify the initiation of emergency measures in Toronto and Vancouver, and Federal Government aid was made available to meet this temporary problem. Of no city, however, could it be said that a full-fledged public welfare or relief department had been developed in a form that we would recognize today.

FIGURES TELL THE STORY

Expenditures by Government on public welfare services in these earlier years reflect, in graphic terms, the unimportant role of health and welfare and the lack of anything but the most elementary facilities for dealing with social welfare problems. In 1913, for example, according to the Rowell-Sirois Report, the total of public welfare expenditures in Canada, including health, relief, pensions and after-care, and all other public welfare services, amounted to only \$15,215,000. The municipal share of this was \$8,161,000. The provinces spent \$4,343,000. In both cases the bulk of the expenditure was for health and hospitals. The Federal Government's share was \$94,000 for military pensions and after-care, and \$2,617,000 on all other health and welfare measures.

Even in 1921, after the creation of our Federal Health Department and the inauguration of Dominion legislation providing pensions and after-care services to the veterans of the First World War, our total expenditures on all governmental levels in Canada amounted to only \$89,822,000. Of

this, \$58,599,000 was a liability of the Federal Government, due almost entirely to its new-found responsibilities for pensions and after-care to ex-servicemen. Provincial expenditures had risen by this time to \$12,549,000, reflecting the development of workmen's compensation in six provinces and mothers' allowances in five. Municipal expenditures likewise had risen to \$18,786,000.

The figures for 1926 show a similar picture: a total of \$87,965,000, of which almost exactly \$50,000,000 fell upon the shoulders of the Federal Government, the balance being divided almost equally between the provinces and the municipalities.

WE'VE COME A LONG WAY

We can say, therefore, that in the year 1924, when *CANADIAN WELFARE* first appeared, the annual expenditures on public welfare services, including health and most forms of institutional care, amounted in all of Canada to very little more than \$85 million annually. Contrast this, if you will, with our current expenditures in the year 1948-49 amounting to close to \$850 million annually for the same purposes. This tenfold increase in a 25-year period presents a graphic picture of what has taken place in the interim.

The milestones on the road of our progress flash instantly before our eyes as we review in rapid succession the legislative developments of the last twenty years. One thinks first of all of our legislation

for the aged, a group totally neglected in 1924, or left to the mercies of our county homes and local poor relief administrations. Beginning in 1927, we have developed over the years a system of pensions for the aged, and later for the blind, which now provides a minimum of security to 250,000 individuals at a total cost approaching \$100 million annually. We spend today on the aged alone more than the total spent on all our health and welfare services by all levels of government twenty years ago.

The lessons of the great depression of the 1930's have also left their monuments behind in better welfare legislation. Supplementing our legislation for the aged, we have the War Veterans' Allowance Act, a special retirement allowance for the ageing veteran who finds himself in need. The cost of this runs each year in excess of \$10 million, with close to 30,000 veterans benefiting.

Our bitter experience gained from the grim task of administering emergency relief to 1½ million Canadians in the 1930's drove us forward to the enactment of the Unemployment Insurance Act of 1940, which now, through contributions made in times of employment by workmen, employers and the government provides a fund totalling close to \$500 million and stands as a steady sentinel of security in times of involuntary idleness for 2½ million Canadian wage-earners.

The last twenty years have also

seen the network of protection provided by provincial workmen's compensation laws and mothers' allowances extended to all but a tiny fraction of our population.

Depression was not the only enemy to strike at the economic heart of Canada in the 1930's. Heartbreak came to our Prairie farmers through devastating drought and crop failures due to other causes. Unemployment insurance offered them no hope of economic security; but special legislation for the prairie farmer, through the Prairie Farm Assistance Act and other measures designed especially for his protection, gave to him the same kind of protection and security that we assure to the urban wage earner through the medium of unemployment insurance. In recent years, through the Agricultural Prices Support legislation of 1944, we have once again provided security for the farmer.

The years which followed World War II have also seen tremendous advances in the health and social security provisions made for war veterans. Medical treatment and rehabilitation services, disability pensions to veterans of both World Wars, war veterans' allowances, veterans' insurance, educational benefits, land settlement assistance and a wide variety of other special benefits,—all these assure to the Canadian veteran a token of our gratitude and our concern with his future well-being. For these services the Canadian public will provide in the current year, through

the Department of Veterans Affairs, the sum of \$282 million.

The years which followed the outbreak of World War II have witnessed a continuation, and indeed acceleration, of the trend to extend wherever possible our legislative measures designed to achieve the fullest measure of security and opportunity for the families of our nation. The Family Allowances Act of 1944 constitutes perhaps the most striking and dramatic example of this trend. This legislation provides assistance to over 1,700,000 families on behalf of 3,800,000 children. The total cost of family allowances now exceeds \$22½ million a month, or \$270 million annually.

The latest step along this winding road of progress has been taken in the newly inaugurated national health program through which the Federal Government, for the first time in its history, assumes a major role in assisting the provinces to carry out their constitutional responsibilities in the field of health. Through special grants for general public health, tuberculosis control, mental hygiene, venereal disease control, cancer research and treatment, hospital construction, etc., the Federal Gov-



National Film Board Photo.

Family Allowances help to provide adequate clothing for Canadian children.

ernment has made it clear that the health of the people of Canada is both a provincial responsibility and a national concern.

These are the outstanding monuments of social achievement in the quarter-century under review. But there is one additional indicator of the progress we have made along the way,—less spectacular perhaps, less obvious, but none the less rich in its promise.

Manitoba's creation of a Department of Health and Public Welfare in 1928 established a pattern which the other provinces and the Federal Government itself were for a long time slow to follow. Ontario followed suit in 1930, Quebec in 1938; but it was not until the Second World War gave a tremendous impetus to the de-

velopment of public welfare organization in this country that the other provinces began to realize the importance of creating in their governmental structure a special department with cabinet rank and permanent responsibilities in the welfare field. From 1942 to 1947, in rapid succession the remaining six provinces in Canada established permanent departments of public welfare. In 1944 the Federal Government too marked formally its entrance into the public welfare field by the creation of the Department of National Health and Welfare.

Now for the first time we have in Canada machinery established on all levels of government for the proper development of our

public welfare program.

The record of what Canada has achieved during these past twenty-five years is on the whole an encouraging one; but it is a record in large part, we must admit, of haphazard building, of spontaneous, yet unplanned initiative, coming to life from time to time with this or that piece of social welfare legislation. If we have been able to achieve so much in this last quarter-century without attention to our planning machinery, how much greater are our prospects of successful progress during the twenty-five years ahead, now that we have established proper machinery for public welfare planning and administration on both provincial and Federal levels.

A New Beveridge Report

ANOTHER important social document compiled by Lord Beveridge is *Voluntary Action for Social Welfare*. This report surveys the whole field of voluntary social work in Britain and puts forward valuable suggestions of how philanthropic action can be adapted to the changing conditions of society. The report is a logical sequence of Lord Beveridge's famous plan for complete social security, which he drew up in 1942 and which has since made his name known throughout the world.

The essence of the report lies in showing how much has been achieved by voluntary action in the past and how there is still as urgent a need as ever for voluntary social work to supplement State services and to pioneer and experiment ahead of the State. "The State cannot see to the rendering of all the services that are needed to make a good society. Voluntary action is needed to do things which the State should not do, such as the giving of advice and organizing the use of leisure. The reasons for voluntary action have not diminished and will not be destroyed by the growing activities of the State." . . . Lord Beveridge recognizes that in the more equal society of the future, voluntary social work must broaden into work of social advancement for the whole of society and that democracy must do for the public good what used to be done by a few. At the same time, new forms of co-operation between the State and the voluntary worker should leave the maximum freedom and responsibility to the individual.

—United Kingdom Information Office Bulletin, December, 1948.

Partnership Possibilities-

DOMINION - PROVINCIAL RELATIONS

By HARRY M. CASSIDY

THE Canadian Welfare Council has been committed for more than a quarter of a century to the promotion of good social services, public and private, for the Canadian people. Beginning with a major concern for private services it soon found that a vast network of public programs was also required. In the 1930's, when at one time one Canadian in every five was dependent upon public relief, the Council found further that the combination of constitutional law and of tradition which defined the respective roles of the Dominion, provincial and local levels of government stood seriously in the way of desirable measures of public welfare.

Unemployment insurance, upon which there was general agreement by the time Mr. Bennett's government passed the Act of 1935, was promptly declared unconstitutional by the Privy Council, and did not come into force until after a special amendment to the British North America Act, in 1940. The

Council's efforts to work out some solution on a national scale to the pressing problems of transients and homeless men and families were constantly thwarted by the Dominion's claim of no jurisdiction over social welfare, and the provincial reply of no responsibility except for provincial residents.

The provinces, with major responsibility for legislation on social welfare under the literal terms of the B.N.A. Act (as interpreted by a Privy Council which had consistently limited Dominion and extended provincial jurisdiction), were unwilling and in many respects unable to proceed with health and welfare reforms because of inadequate tax sources. The Dominion, with far greater taxing powers, pretty consistently said that although it would help the provinces through emergency unemployment relief grants, social welfare was not its primary concern. The constructive social proposals of the Canadian Welfare Council and of other bodies came

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to naught, largely because of the barrier of Dominion-Provincial relations.

FROM DEADLOCK TO DEADLOCK

The great constitutional inquiry of the Rowell-Sirois Commission from 1937 to 1939 did not lead to solution of the problem, for the Commission's proposals were rudely scorned by several provinces at the Dominion-Provincial conference of 1941. By this time it was possible to let the issue lie for a time and to get on with the war, which relieved depression tensions and temporarily gave the Dominion emergency war powers sufficient for its purposes. With the end of the war, the Dominion Government suggested a new approach to settlement in its proposals of August 1945.

Again there were conferences with the provinces. But by the following May the last meeting broke up in violent disagreement, with Ontario and Quebec as the main opponents of the Dominion proposals. Subsequently all but these two provinces agreed to one important section of the Dominion plan, calling for provincial retirement from the income, corporation, and succession tax fields in return for annual subsidies from Ottawa. The other two major portions of the Dominion scheme, regarding social security and public investment, were discussed scarcely at all at the conferences of 1945-46; and the Dominion did nothing further on its social security plan until in May, 1948. Parliament authorized one part of it, health

grants to the provinces at the annual rate of \$30,000,000 for five years.

There is broad agreement in Canada that there should be established contributory systems of old age and health insurance. But the Dominion now lacks the power to legislate for individual contributions towards the finances of such schemes. If the Dominion lays down rigid and specific standards with which the provinces must comply in order to become eligible for grants-in-aid, or if it uses other devices to get around the constitution, it may be accused by some provinces of forcing its policies upon them with its dollars and thus of invading the provincial domain of social welfare by indirection. In view of the sensitivity of the people of Quebec (and to a lesser extent of other provinces) to any federal invasion of their real or imagined provincial rights, any national government must advance with great caution on social security or on any other issue which touches provincial jurisdiction.

The acuteness of the controversy with the Governments of Ontario and Quebec since 1945 has given the Dominion strong arguments for delay on social security. For one thing, it has been argued, no national social security program which was not based on complete agreement with the provinces regarding taxation and jurisdiction over anti-depression policy would be satisfactory. For under the 1945 proposals or any other plan the Dominion would have to as-

sume very heavy financial obligations. If the provinces did not agree to keep clear of the lucrative fields of income, corporation, and succession taxes and if they should be unwilling to cooperate on measures to protect against unemployment and agricultural depression, the Federal Government could not safely commit itself to fixed social security charges of large amount. Moreover, it has been argued, the social security portion of the 1945 plan was attractive to the people of all Canada. It was, therefore, bait to lure the dissenting provinces to swallow the less popular tax provisions. Hence it would be politically unwise for the Dominion to give up the bargaining powers implicit in its social security offer by proceeding to make it available to those provinces which did not accept the tax proposals as well as those which did.

ARE THE OBSTACLES REAL?

But on the other hand there is a great deal of evidence to suggest that the constitutional barrier to social security is not insuperable.

In the first place, there has proceeded, almost unnoticed by the leaders of Dominion-Provincial controversy, a remarkable transfer of administrative and financial responsibility for the public social services from the provincial and local levels to the national level of government. The following figures¹

¹ Based mainly on J. W. Willard, "Public Welfare Expenditures in Canada," *Canadian Welfare*, March, 1948. The unemployment insurance item represents contributions by workers and employers rather than actual expenditures.

show estimated expenditures on public health, welfare, and social insurance services (including the costs of national health and welfare programs for war veterans) for the year 1947:

Source	\$ Millions	Per cent
Dominion	525	76
Provincial	115	15
Municipal	51	9
Total	691	100
Unemployment Insurance..	62	
Workmen's Compensation	49	
Grand Total	802	

In 1913 the Dominion share of health and welfare costs, on a roughly comparable basis, was only 17.4 per cent of total public expenditures, while in 1940 (not including the costs of services to veterans) it was 36.2 per cent. During the war and the postwar periods the Dominion's role in the administration and the financing of the social services has increased greatly on account of the adoption of national unemployment insurance, family allowances, health and welfare services for veterans, the National Physical Fitness scheme, an amended Old Age Pensions Act, and the health grants of 1948, along with the formation of the Department of National Health and Welfare. During the same period there have been important advances in the health and welfare services of some of the provinces, notably British Columbia and Saskatchewan.

Secondly, the written constitution of Canada represents far less of an obstacle to effective Do-

minion action than is usually supposed. It stands in the way of the comprehensive Canadian Welfare Council plan of 1946² only at one major point, contributory social insurance to provide old age, disability, survivors' and sickness cash benefits. Everything else proposed by the Council as appropriate for the Dominion could be done, quite legally, by means of grants-in-aid or other co-operative devices, with administration largely decentralized to the provinces.

Admittedly the barrier against the desirable social insurance legislation is very important. But this is one which might well be removed by constitutional amendment, just as was done in the case of unemployment insurance in 1940. There is good reason to believe that all of the provinces except Quebec would not object to such an amendment to the B.N.A. Act; and that perhaps Quebec, too, would agree if the issue were diplomatically posed. At the least, the provinces should be asked their views on such an amendment before hope of it is given up.

Thirdly, a complete pattern of social security could be devised which would permit large Dominion financial contributions (the really essential point of federal participation) without any technical violation of the B.N.A. Act. The Dominion plan of 1945 called for no constitutional change whatsoever, although it was open to a variety of objections. But it is very

probable that a better scheme than the federal plan of 1945 can be worked out within the limits of the present constitution.

For example, the Dominion might pass contributory social insurance legislation to become effective only in those provinces which adopt enabling legislation—with provisions for complete Dominion administration, for provincial administration, or for co-operative administration. In this case the legislation would become effective across the country as rapidly as the various provinces agreed to take advantage of it, as happened in the case of Old Age Pensions. Much more ingenuity is needed at Ottawa to explore what can be done within the terms of the B.N.A. Act.

THE POLITICAL BARRIER

Fourthly, the political arguments against unilateral action by the Dominion on social security seem to the writer to have been given far more weight in Ottawa circles than they deserve. One of them, that the Dominion should not surrender a bargaining point to use against the provinces in connection with taxation issues, has been disregarded already by the decision to offer the health grants in 1948. The other main one, that the Dominion cannot risk heavy commitments towards social security without certainty of tax revenues and provincial co-operation on anti-depression policy, is understandable, but surely open to question. For if depression strikes

² Published as a pamphlet under the title *Dominion-Provincial Relations and Social Security*.

again, will the provinces not look to Ottawa for fiscal assistance and leadership, as they did in the 1930's? And will they not generally welcome public investment and other anti-depression schemes which only the Dominion can properly initiate and co-ordinate? Finally, why should the Dominion not take some risk on social security finances, when there are many other elements of risk in total financial policy which cannot possibly be avoided by present policies?

The conclusion emerges that the Dominion-Provincial relations controversy is far less of a barrier to national social security policy than is commonly supposed. The difficulty is fundamentally political rather than constitutional. A Dominion Government which was firmly committed to prompt action on social security could almost certainly do much to achieve results. It could proceed immediately, for example, to build a national program of public assistance and public medical care and to deal with the transient problem by means of conditional grants-in-aid. It could explore carefully, as has not yet been done, the problem of constitutional amendment for contributory social insurance. It could build up indispensable central resources for research, planning, and technical service to the provinces. It could explore the use of the grant-in-aid and the concurrent legislation methods of

getting results in those provinces which would agree to co-operate.

ONE THING AT A TIME

Perhaps in an attempt to solve one major problem at a time, such as social security, lies the answer to the general issue of Dominion-Provincial relations. The Rowell-Sirois Commission tackled the whole complicated question and did not obtain an answer. The conferences of 1945 and 1946 tried to settle everything all at once and failed again. Later the tax issues were decided, for the time at least, with seven provinces out of the nine. If social security is tackled as a separate problem, a great deal of success should be possible. And so with labour, agricultural marketing, immigration, public investment and other major questions of joint concern to the Dominion and the provinces.

Out of a series of separate, although related, negotiations and joint efforts to achieve results of common value may come such a clearance of the ground as to make possible a general settlement—or even to make one unnecessary. Thus the constitution may be moulded gradually to make of Canadian federalism a genuine partnership between the Dominion and the provinces, with each level of government having its own appropriate and honourable role to fulfill. And thus we may be spared the controversies, the conflicts, and the deadlocks which attempts at wholesale change appear to bring with them.

Health and Welfare in the Provinces

PROVINCIAL - MUNICIPAL RELATIONS

By JOSEPH E. HOWES

Two significant trends are apparent in Canada in the last quarter century with regard to provincial-municipal relations in social welfare: First, the enormous growth in civic consciousness of the need for welfare services, and second, the shifting of welfare responsibilities from the municipal to the provincial level of government. Notwithstanding the added share assumed by the provinces, however, the financial cost of these services to the municipalities, both in total amount and as a percentage of total municipal expenditure, is far greater now than at its commencement.

In Canada, social welfare services generally are the responsibility of the local authorities. Under the British North America Act the provinces were given jurisdiction over social welfare and hence responsibility for policy and finance. Since municipalities were also placed under provincial jurisdiction, the provinces had power to pass on welfare obligations to

the local governments. This they proceeded to do, influenced no doubt by British tradition in this regard. However, even earlier than twenty-five years ago municipalities were unable, by themselves, to cope with the welfare problems confronting them and provinces found it necessary to operate, or to assist in the operation of, such institutions as mental and tuberculosis hospitals, reformatories, and the like.

Allowances to mothers who are widowed or who, for other reasons, are without means of support, were first paid in Manitoba in 1916 and by 1923 five provinces were providing this service. Since then three other provinces have done so. At first Manitoba collected a portion of the cost from its municipalities but discontinued this practice about 1926. Ontario followed a similar practice for a time but in 1937, when the Province repealed the right of its municipalities to levy an income tax, it assumed the full cost. Al-

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berta municipalities have been bearing 25% of the cost but now this may be reduced in accordance with the recommendation of the Report of the Royal Commission on Taxation.

Old age pensions were initiated by Dominion legislation in 1927. First adopted by British Columbia in that year, pensions are now paid in all provinces. At its inception 50% of the net cost of pensions was paid by the Dominion but this was raised to 75% in 1931. The provinces of Ontario, Manitoba and Alberta at first collected a portion of the cost of pensions from their respective municipalities. In Ontario, this charge, like the one for mothers' allowances, was discontinued in 1937. Manitoba in October last agreed to cancel its levy on municipalities for this purpose and Premier Manning of Alberta in the same month said his cabinet would recommend the taking over by the province of the present municipal obligation for old age and blind pensions.

Provincial-municipal relations with respect to relief services have followed a somewhat confused course during the period under review. Previous to the "Thirties", with the exception of a short time following World War I, the need for unemployment relief was comparatively unknown in Canadian municipalities. With the onset of the depression, however, many municipalities soon found themselves swamped, both administratively and financially, by relief

problems.

Help from the provinces and the Dominion was forthcoming on an emergency basis with the amount subject to change from year to year and usually varying within a province according to the type and financial condition of the municipality. Even with this aid a considerable number of municipalities, especially those suburban to larger cities and industrial centres, experienced financial difficulties and were temporarily placed under provincial supervision. While generally the responsibility for administration of relief within the municipality remained in its hands, it was natural that provincial supervision should become more pronounced, since during the period 1931 to 1937, the provinces and the Dominion provided about 80% of the total amount spent on this service.

Upon cessation of Dominion relief grants on March 31, 1941, the Maritime provinces and Quebec discontinued relief grants-in-aid to their municipalities, but the other provinces have continued aid on varying bases. In Saskatchewan, its scope has been broadened to include unemployables as well as employables—a step previously taken by British Columbia; in Manitoba and Alberta it is limited to employables; and in Ontario to unemployables. In Alberta, it was recently announced that while the Cabinet agrees with the principle that the municipal share of the cost of indigent relief, including hospital and medical care should

be reduced, it has not yet been decided that the 80-20 split proposed by the Royal Commission with the larger share borne by the province, would be satisfactory.

During depression years the practice of paying a share of the medical cost of relief recipients was introduced in a number of provinces. Since then some, including Saskatchewan and Ontario, have provided medical and hospital care for old age and blind pensioners and recipients of mothers' allowances.

In the provision of hospital care, the general tendency for the provinces to assume what were formerly considered to be municipal responsibilities is also apparent. The provision of such care for old age pensioners and others cited above is an example of this. Others are the assumption of responsibility for hospital care of certain tubercular patients by Ontario (1938), New Brunswick (1945) and Nova Scotia (1946); Quebec's assumption in 1945 of responsibility for the maintenance of indigent patients in provincially-supported mental hospitals; and New Brunswick's assumption, of a larger share of the cost of such patients. Also provincial grants to hospitals have been increased greatly in recent years. Ontario, for instance, making use of its revenue from a new tax on amusements, greatly increased such maintenance grants this year. An event of even more significance has been the introduction of compulsory hospital care insurance programs in two pro-

vinces: Saskatchewan's plan began operations in 1947 and British Columbia's is scheduled for 1949.

While it became operative more than 25 years ago, mention should be made of the Public Charities Act (1921) of Quebec under which the cost of care to needy persons provided by hospitals and various charitable institutions is apportioned among the three partners, the private agency, the municipality and the province.

Developments in the public health field also follow the general trend, although the larger cities have in effect been pioneers in the municipal realm and today most Canadian cities provide their own public health services. In some provinces local health services are organized through units developed on the basis of counties or other combinations of local government areas, under provincial auspices and with significant provincial financial support. Quebec inaugurated its system of county health units in 1926 and now has a total of 63 units serving 74 of the province's 76 counties or the greater part of its rural area. Ontario, too, has some county health units in operation and Saskatchewan has established three health regions, in one of which personal health services, including medical and dental care, are also provided.

The foregoing examples clearly indicate the extent and nature of the shift from municipal to provincial responsibility in the period under review. However, this has not resulted in a reduction in

Provincial and Municipal Public Welfare Expenditures

Year	Amount (Millions of Dollars)		Per Cent of Combined Total		Per Cent Public Welfare Expenditures All Purposes ¹	
	Prov.	Mun.	Prov.	Mun.	Prov.	Mun.
1921	12.5	18.8	40.0	60.0	13.8	9.1
1926	17.6	20.7	46.0	54.0	14.1	8.6
1947	121.3	51.4	70.2	29.8	23.5	14.0

¹ Expenditure on current account excluding debt repayment.

municipal expenditures for welfare services but rather in a lessening of the amount the municipalities would otherwise have been responsible for. This is shown by the following comparison of provincial and municipal current expenditures on public welfare services in the years 1921, 1926 and 1947. The amounts in the first two years are as shown in Book III of the Report of the Rowell-Sirois Commission, while the 1947 amounts are those published in the Bank of Canada's Statistical Summary.

What circumstances have wrought these changes? So far as the municipalities are concerned, the most important one has been their limited tax base. By far the greater portion of municipal revenue comes from taxation of real property, with other productive revenue sources either having been appropriated by senior levels of government or being administratively unsuitable for smaller governmental units.

A resolution adopted in November last by the York County Council asking the Province to contribute to all municipalities in Ontario 50% of the monies spent by counties on social service work is an example of the general municipal attitude. It pointed out

that this would be fair and reasonable because the province has broader sources of revenue which should bear these costs, and also because "the main source of municipal taxation is real estate and the provision of social services has no proper relations to the services which real estate requires."

From the provincial standpoint, welfare departments have become better staffed and more firmly established following expansion during the "relief" period and it is natural that administrative responsibility should tend to flow in their direction. There is, however, a great deal to be said in favour of local administration of social welfare services since it lends itself to more flexibility in policy. There is also much to be said in favour of preserving the functions of municipal governments since they are one of the chief foundations of our democratic system. It is to be hoped that from a variety of experiments—and one great advantage of our federal system is that it makes possible such local experiments without committing the whole country to them—a method or methods will emerge which will combine in proper proportions the elements of provincial guidance and finance and local administration.

Two Servants of the People

Unemployment Insurance and the National Employment Service

By ARTHUR MacNAMARA, C.M.G., LL.D.,
Deputy Minister of Labour

IN THE summer of 1940, when all events outside Europe moved in the shadows, an Act of Parliament was passed in Ottawa providing for two institutions which were destined to be of vital importance to our economy long after the Very-light glare of the Axis was but a bitter memory. Unemployment Insurance and the National Employment Service were designed to achieve the same objective—the maintenance of high employment.

The Unemployment Insurance Act of 1940 provided the necessary authority for the Government of Canada to lessen the possibility of hardship arising out of temporary unemployment by insuring workers against the possibility. Since such insurance would not only assist the individual, but would also tend to sustain the level of domestic buying power to the benefit of all, the Act provided that not only the insured, but employers and the Dominion Government as well would contribute to the fund.

The Act of 1940 provided for a

Commission of three members, to have general control and jurisdiction in regard to unemployment insurance administration and employment service operations. While the Commission is required to exercise certain statutory authority in regard to unemployment insurance, by a 1946 amendment to the Act the Commission is responsible to the Minister of Labour for the operations of the National Employment Service.

If such an insurance plan were to function successfully, some means of placing the unemployed worker in touch with the existing job openings would be necessary, and so the Act also provided for the organization of a chain of employment offices across Canada.

From the summer of 1941 when Unemployment Insurance and National Employment Service offices first opened their doors to the public, until today, the spotlight has been on the employment agency, since from then until now, employment has remained at remarkably high levels, with unem-

Except for three years in the Air Force during the First World War, Mr. MacNamara has been in public service since 1914, and during most of that time he has been in Labour Departments dealing directly with the problems of unemployment. Before coming to Ottawa to take his present position, he held the same post in the Government of Manitoba.

ployment never rising above five per cent of the total work force, and serious labour shortages existing during the war and in many industries in the postwar period.

The year 1941 did not see Canada's first venture into the field of public employment service. Actually, the beginnings can be traced back prior to 1910. At first some municipalities faced with unemployment conceived the idea of public placement agencies. Before very long several Provincial Governments entered the field.

Late in World War I legislation was passed under which the Federal Government was to pay subsidies to any of the nine provinces organizing and operating public employment services. Eight of the provinces (Prince Edward Island excepted) entered into agreements with the Federal Government covering the operation of such services, with the result that a chain of about 75 employment offices in urban centres was established across the country, known as the Employment Service of Canada. This chain continued to operate until July, 1941.

This organization, in spite of certain handicaps which became evident in later years, gave a good quality of service. However, financing was inadequate and it suffered from lack of central control. Before the present Federal Service began, the Governments of the Provinces had been notified that Dominion financial aid to the Employment Service of Canada would terminate just as soon as

the Federal Service was prepared to operate.

Adjustments were made with respect to the provincial staff, premises and physical equipment. The outcome was that on the same date as the N.E.S. undertook operations, the governments of the provinces all but unanimously withdrew from the field of public employment service. The single exception was in Quebec, where the Government continued some of the provincial employment offices, but with a minimum of duplication of the federal service.

SELECTIVE SERVICE IN WAR

When the exigencies of war required a full-scale mobilization of Canada's manpower, these local offices became the instrument for the administration of the National Selective Service program. With Canada completing her second year of war on the Axis, the time was opportune for the National Employment Service to prove its worth. Labour shortages were pronounced in many skilled trades. The need for increased agricultural production was being felt. Farmers were suffering by the loss of manpower to urban industries and the Armed Forces. These were serious problems which faced the new service at its outset.

Despite these problems the new public service got under way and rapidly gained momentum, and it is possible that the challenging conditions may have provided an incentive, resulting in initial tasks being performed more earnestly than had peacetime prevailed.

While the value of the National Employment Service in relation to Canada's war effort was important from the beginning, it was the intention throughout that this public service should become a permanent arm of the Government.

From its inception, the first objective was to provide a placement service. The second objective of the National Employment Service was to provide the field machinery for the administration of unemployment insurance, closely integrated with the placement function, and handled in so far as the public is concerned through the same local employment offices.

Another aim of the service is in a general way to assist in alleviating an unemployment situation.

POSTWAR RECONVERSION

It must be realized that a type of administration such as employment service never settles into a comfortable routine. It is dynamic—never static. The change from a wartime to a peacetime footing amply demonstrates this.

Under wartime controls, a certain pattern could be followed, but with these controls lifted the whole picture was changed. During the war, the problem had been to find available manpower and to use that manpower to the utmost efficiency. With the ending of the



National Film Board Photo

Cabinet maker at furniture plant, Stratford, Ontario

war, the problem was to find employment for nearly a million men and women being released from the Armed Forces and thousands of civilian workers from closing war industries.

By the middle of August, 1947, it was evident that the endeavours of the National Employment Service were bearing fruit. Statistics showed that the Dominion was enjoying the highest employment level in her history. Almost 5,000,000 people were in employment at that time. The labour of some 40 per cent of our workers had been redistributed in two short years of reconversion. This upward trend continued to a new high during the summer of 1948.

With the introduction of the voluntary system of registering workers and jobs in early 1947, following the final relaxation of National Selective Service controls, a marked falling off in the volume of placement activities might have been expected. However, although the volume of activity by the Employment Service in 1947 and in 1948 stands below the 1946 level, it still remains remarkably high. Placement statistics strongly indicate the continuing confidence of workers and employers generally in the Service. In 1947, a total of 769,849 jobs were filled through the Service. (From August 1, 1941 to October 28, 1948, 8,531,283 placements were made by N.E.S.)

During the past two years, the major factor in placement activities through the 250 local offices has been the tight labour market.

The Service has concentrated on sponging up remaining pools of unemployment by the movement of workers from one area to another, the placement of older workers and the physically handicapped, and the development of the only new sources of labour—youth and immigrants.

SPECIAL AID FOR YOUTH

All local employment offices are equipped to provide special services for the placement of youth in first employment. The smaller offices do not maintain special sections devoted specifically to this work, but their officers give particular attention to "first jobbers".

In Toronto and Montreal, separate Youth Employment Centres are operated by, but separate from, the Local Employment Office, while in Winnipeg, a section of the Local Office is functioning successfully as a Youth Employment Section. Here, each case is studied thoroughly as to background, personality, educational qualifications, and aptitudes by expert counsellors who devote their full time to the problems of youth.

Close liaison with youth organizations is maintained in order that all who are working for the benefit of Canadian youth may pool their ideas and experience to the better attainment of their common objective. Cooperation with Provincial Apprenticeship Boards and technical and trade schools in the placing of apprentices is also being undertaken.

OVER 45'S

Perhaps, in pointing out the

special facilities for youth, mention should also be made of the steps taken to help those at the opposite end of the age group—the older worker. A counselling service for applicants for employment over 45 years of age was set up in Toronto on an experimental basis in December, 1947. Counselling is based on a study of the applicant's experience, abilities and hobbies, an endeavour being made to assess those qualities which have the greatest chance of being used in the labour market. Often, counselling has led to an applicant discovering he had a marketable ability or skill of which he was not previously aware. As a result of the success achieved in Toronto, consideration is now being given to opening similar counselling services in all larger employment centres across Canada.

THE IMMIGRANT IN CANADA

The facilities of the Employment Service are utilized to a large extent by all new immigrants to Canada, but of special importance is the part played by the service in the immigration of Displaced Persons. Selection of these new Canadians is based on information supplied by the Employment Service relating to the absorptive capacity of Canadian industry, and all the necessary arrangements for their movement and employment in Canada are handled by the service.

Although the National Employment Service has reached a high standard of efficiency, its officials are constantly striving to improve

and expand its facilities. They realize that a first-class employment service can be a real bulwark against widespread unemployment developing from a local situation in one region or in one industry.

UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE

And working side by side to sustain prosperity is Unemployment Insurance. Has it fulfilled expectations? It might be said that it hadn't been tried. It hasn't in the sense that there has not been a period of serious unemployment since its inception. However, it has been tested.

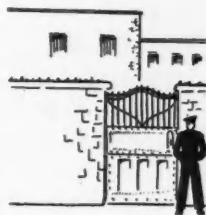
Although unemployment did not reach more than five per cent of the total work force during reconversion, this period did see thousands out of work for a few days or a few weeks, posted on and off the benefit rolls with the result that for a few months early in 1946 unemployment insurance payments reached about \$4,500,000 a month.

The worth of this social security was also illustrated during the period of shortage of natural gas power for industry in the Windsor area in the winter of 1948, and and even more dramatically in the Pacific Region in the spring of 1948 during the tragic floods.

These two servants, Unemployment Insurance and the National Employment Service, have done much already in stabilizing the economy, as well as providing personal assistance to thousands of individuals who would otherwise have been without such help from any other source.

CANADA'S PENAL SYSTEM

By STUART K. JAFFARY



Two highlights are prominent in viewing crime and delinquency in Canada in the second quarter of this century. The first is the Archambault Report, the second the decline of juvenile delinquency. Both are revealing, both hopeful.

The Archambault Report of 1938 is outstanding. It merits much more serious attention and application than it has yet received. Its full title, *Report of the Royal Commission to Investigate the Penal System of Canada* is misleading on one point; it implies that we *have* a penal system. Actually, the most telling parts of the Report are directed at the very lack of such a system; its major recommendation is that one be created to meet the revealed need. The first phases of such an organization are now a matter of growing interest—the better classification of offenders, the training of prison officers, and, above all, the appointment of able and responsible senior officials to direct the system-to-be.

Canada's penal "system" is a strange kind of robot giant. Physically, he sprawls across the nation in disconnected parts. He spends much of his time endlessly opening and closing steel gratings on a gray mass of allegedly sub-human people variously described as "inmates", "convicts", or "prisoners". Much of his activity is thoughtless and mechanical. At times he can be callous to any human feelings, brutal with the lash, destructive of hope and personality. Unguided and apathetic for half a century, the giant is now stirring in a puzzled way. Who will tell him what to do?

This giant shows another grotesque distortion. Not only does he sprawl across the country, but his sprawling form is split into three segments for the whole distance; these are thinly connected. The courts are one segment; they decide whom he is to receive and to hold. The institutions are a second segment, holding whom the courts send and disgorging them at a predetermined point of time, irrespec-

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tive of their needs or condition. The third segment is only faintly apparent. It consists of those who care what happens to these shades of people after discharge, when the last steel door has clanged behind him. Between these three segments there is little connection and less co-operation; each one goes its own way. The giant has no nervous system to link them together into a purposeful body.

Worse than the lack of a nervous system is the lack of a brain. He does not know clearly what he is doing or why. No one has told him what to do; no one is responsible for his actions. The tragic products of his work point to a shocking failure, but who is to blame? One cannot blame a disconnected part for the failure of a non-existent whole.

The Royal Commission made pertinent recommendations about the giant. The courts are to be strengthened by competent probation services. The institutions are to become humanized and purposeful. The release authority (the Remissions Branch of the Department of Justice) was in 1938, and still is, a tight but powerful bureaucracy which publishes no reports, makes no statements, answers no questions (only grudgingly so to the Commission itself!). It is to become an integral part of the giant, linked to the work of the other parts. Rehabilitative and preventive services are to be extended and strengthened. Most important of all, the giant is to be given a brain (the Peniten-

tiary Commission) with power to join the parts and build them into a vital body.

All this makes sense to practical Canadians. Too long have we tolerated the stupid and dismembered giant. It makes sense, too, because it aims to end his apathy by giving him a purpose—the humane and constructive purpose of building up men. He is to recognize his wards as human beings rather than some subhuman species. Each man has a personality and a future; he must be studied and treated with this future in mind—a future of return to, and living in the community. Formerly the man served time; now, time must serve the man.*

Time will also be required to build the services. The giant will not be reformed overnight. The criminal law must have its purpose decided and clarified. If it is to punish, it could be much more severe. If it is to deter, it could be much tougher. But if it is to *reform* human beings then it must clearly say so and follow through with the essential means of reform—case studies, probation, smaller and better institutions, modern parole and rehabilitation services. The giant's present stumbling and damage comes from this confusion. We must first decide what we want him to do, then equip him and direct him to do it. The Archambault Report points the way.

At the end of the quarter century, the opportunity is being presented. In June, 1948, the then

*I am indebted to Colonel Wallace Bunton, of the Salvation Army, for this cogent phrase.

Minister of Justice, Hon. Mr. Ilsley, announced in Parliament the periodic revision of the Statutes of Canada, including the Criminal Code. The outlook and practice of the criminal law stems from the Code. The coming revision, then, must plainly incorporate the new purpose and adapt our criminal procedure to it. The other features are already blue-printed in the Report. The Penitentiary Branch has been given an excellent General Staff, already productively at work. The Remissions Branch is due for overhauling. Dominion-Provincial responsibilities and co-operation respecting the offender have to be studied and rearranged. The project is a major one for the next quarter of the century. The present modest beginnings are indicative of the larger changes to come.

Movement is also appearing in some provinces. British Columbia experimented with a Borstal-type institution for youths in the 1930's but closed it in wartime. It has now been re-opened, and an indeterminate sentence law obtained to make its operation more effective. Meanwhile the province has shown a steady advance in adult probation. In 1946, Saskatchewan felt the time ripe for self-examination and appointed an able Royal Commission. A sound report followed, which is now being translated into modern services. Also in 1946, Ontario created a Department of Reform Institutions to manage its penal activities. Tangible progress has been evidenced in better classi-

fication, staff training, new institutions for juveniles, and improved jails. Conditions in other provinces have remained disappointingly unchanged in the period.

The progress noted applies to males. The position of the woman offender continues to be a disgrace. No attention has been paid to her, perhaps because women offenders are fewer in number and administrators are males. Mass incarceration is the rule; strapping is still common. Into the same prison are dumped young girls and old alcoholics, prostitutes, drug addicts, and chronic offenders. Such extremes cry out for case studies and classification, with proper probation, institutional treatment, and parole—but we have almost none of these. Here is a challenge to women's organizations in Canada. Do any of them really care what is happening to their less fortunate sisters? Won't some of them please read Janet Whitney's biography of Elizabeth Fry—and act?

The best news comes from juvenile delinquency. It is sharply declining. National figures showed a peak in the war year of 1942; they have dropped one-third since that time. Some cities report a sharper decline, others claim that serious delinquency has virtually disappeared. Such good news calls for rejoicing and congratulations, but not for slackening our efforts. Behind such welcome headlines a variety of causes can be seen at work—steady employment with high earnings; family allowances

and other security payments; more efficient children's agencies and improved family and juvenile courts; better parenthood through Home and School Associations and adult education programs; additional social services in our schools, and greatly extended community services for recreation, to mention only a few. But a smile, please, from those hard-pressed social workers in the front line, who are too close to the unending war to observe the winning of a battle—here is a battle being won!

But temper the satisfaction by another striking fact—the stupendous costs of criminal recidivism. On page 216 of the Archambault Report will be found some clear, hard figures. They show that Canada spent some \$25,000 *per man* merely to convict and detain serious criminals. We may have 8,000 of them, and this is only a part of the total cost in dollars, let alone the suffering and misery ensuing from criminal acts. After spending this sum, we have, as a result, one confirmed and

dangerous criminal, to be again released to the community. We are informed that the purpose of the criminal law is to protect the community. We are paying a huge price and we are not getting protection. This is more than a profligate waste of millions of money; it is a piece of gross social stupidity by an intelligent nation. We perpetuate it because we have neither known nor cared what the giant was doing. His irresponsibility makes him a destructive and expensive fellow. But he can be improved and trained; we know what is needed. By 1975 the picture for the adult offender can reflect the hopefulness now present in the juvenile scene. That resulted because we cared—and went to work.

Do we really care about the youthful offender? If so, the course of action is clear. We must accept him as a human being, we must consider his basic human needs, we must see that these are met. That way lies the reform of the giant Crime in the next quarter century.

Prairie Provinces and Penal Reform

SASKATCHEWAN, Manitoba and Alberta will make joint representations to the Federal Minister of Justice to implement certain recommendations contained in the Archambault report on penal reform. This decision was reached at a recent penal reform conference in Edmonton. The two recommendations of the report dealt with were: "That the Canadian penal system be centralized under federal control, with the provinces retaining provision for offenders against provincial statutes, prisoners on remand, and those serving short terms; and that separate institutions based on the English Borstal system be established to permit special treatment for young offenders."

—*Saskatchewan News*, December 15, 1948.

Towards a Healthy Canada

By F. W. JACKSON, M.D., D.P.H.

THE trend in public health in the last 25 years has been towards preservation of the health of the individual, rather than merely prevention of the spread of disease. There has been growing recognition of the broad concept of health as "a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity" as defined in the constitution of the World Health Organization.

There were, twenty-five years ago, departments or boards of health in all provinces except Prince Edward Island; now there are separate departments of health in Nova Scotia, Quebec, Ontario, Saskatchewan and Alberta. In Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, Manitoba and British Columbia, as in the federal government, health and welfare are combined in one department.

The major non-governmental health organizations such as the Canadian Red Cross Society, the Canadian Tuberculosis Association, the Victorian Order of Nurses,

St. John Ambulance Association and the Canadian National Committee for Mental Hygiene, are more than 25 years old and their development, like that of the provincial health departments, has been primarily an expansion. The Canadian Social Hygiene Council, the forerunner of the Health League of Canada, was also established more than 25 years ago.

Public health departments were first brought into being to cope with epidemics. Their success in this field, and particularly in the development of sanitation, led to support of further efforts to deal with communicable disease. The mortality due to communicable diseases has shown a continuing decline, and the death rate for typhoid fever, scarlet fever and diphtheria has dropped more than 80% in the last twenty-five years. Whooping cough and measles have shown over 70% decrease.

This progress has not been uniform either throughout Canada or within individual provinces, and in recent years special attention has

For the past seventeen years Dr. Jackson has been Deputy Minister of Health and Public Welfare for the Province of Manitoba and has lately come to Ottawa to become Director of Health Insurance Studies in the Department of National Health and Welfare. In 1943 he served as chairman of a Royal Commission investigating the health and welfare of the Japanese people in the interior of British Columbia, and has represented Canada in the World Health Organization.

been directed to the situation in the rural areas. The institution of local sanitary services, particularly inspection, antedated the 25 year period, but the greater use of scientific knowledge and expert personnel in sanitary engineering and the widespread use of immunization and vaccination procedures made it impossible for local units, especially in rural areas, to provide the necessary service.

It became imperative for provincial governments to assist, if all parts of the province were to be effectively served. This led to the development of larger units of health administration. The first county health units were established in Quebec in 1926, but the system has been adopted with variations in most of the other provinces. This trend toward the development of county or other health districts and the sharing of the financial load, with consequent supervision and control, by provincial governments is regarded as an outstanding development in public health.

MOTHERS AND CHILDREN

The decline in mortality from communicable diseases brought some corresponding drop in infant and maternal mortality, but it was early realized that other measures were necessary. During the past quarter-century, there has been an intensification of educational and other efforts in the field of child and maternal hygiene which, in all provinces, is associated with public health nursing services. Educational measures, including the pre-

paration of pamphlets, posters, etc., and giving of lectures and demonstrations, are commonly the work of provincial health departments, while home visits for pre-natal and post-natal care and advice are also becoming more general services. The maternal mortality rate has dropped over 60% and the infant mortality rate over 50% in the last twenty-five years, but the stillbirth rate has not shown an equal decline and is still a cause of general concern.

ATTACKS ON TB AND VD

Tuberculosis and venereal disease have also received special attention. The high venereal disease rate in the armed forces during the first world war led to the Dominion grant to the provinces to aid efforts to control the disease. This federal grant, which was the sole example of a conditional grant-in-aid in the public health field until the recent announcement of the National Health Grants Program, stimulated a vigorous attack on the problem by the development of clinics and provision of free treatment.

The Venereal Disease Grant was discontinued in 1931 but was subsequently resumed in 1938 after repeated recommendations by the health organizations and other groups and after a Dominion Council of Health investigation established the adverse effects of discontinuance of the grant. During the recent war there was a further intensified campaign with common direction in both service

and civilian fields. The four-fold program then developed is typical of the growing integration of the public health and related fields, particularly education and social welfare. The federal venereal disease grant has been more than doubled under the new Health Grants Program.

The attack on tuberculosis has been directed toward discovery of all cases at as early a stage as possible and effective isolation of all infectious cases. The provincial health departments and the Canadian Tuberculosis Association have developed vigorous campaigns in all provinces, using mobile clinics, mass x-ray surveys of large groups and other measures. The intensification of case-finding efforts has been accompanied by legislation and facilities for compulsory notification and treatment on the one hand and, on the other, by free treatment for all, or at least for indigents in every province.

In some provinces allowances are provided to help the family meet the financial crisis arising from prolonged hospitalization of the family breadwinner. The Mothers' Allowances, which are now paid in all but one province, may, in some cases, be given if the husband is incapacitated by tuberculosis. Rehabilitation measures are also now receiving some attention.

CONTROL OF CANCER

Cancer, which has moved from fifth to second place as a cause of death, is the subject of a special attack. A number of the provinces

have cancer commissions or institutes which provide radioactive materials for treatment, and in some instances free treatment is available. Diagnostic clinics are becoming more prominent and most of the provincial laboratories now give some diagnostic services.

In addition to consideration of the provincial, regional and urban-rural variations in mortality already referred to, comparisons with other countries are necessary to evaluate the progress of public health in Canada. Canada now has a relatively low crude death rate, and ranked 56th in a listing of 59 countries. The infant mortality and maternal mortality rates, which are generally considered to be useful indices of public health, are relatively low in Canada, but, with respect to the former, 12 out of 61 countries had lower rates. Canada's maternal mortality rate ranked 23rd among 47 countries in 1940. The reduction in Canadian infant and maternal mortality rates during the period 1921-41 was creditable, but there were about a dozen countries with greater percentage decreases in this period. Trends in infant mortality and maternal mortality in Canada and certain other countries are shown in Figures 1 and 2.

In the reduction of mortality due to infectious diseases Canada's progress corresponds with that in the United States and western European countries. The downward trend in tuberculosis death rates has been general, but in 1940 Canada's rate ranked 39th

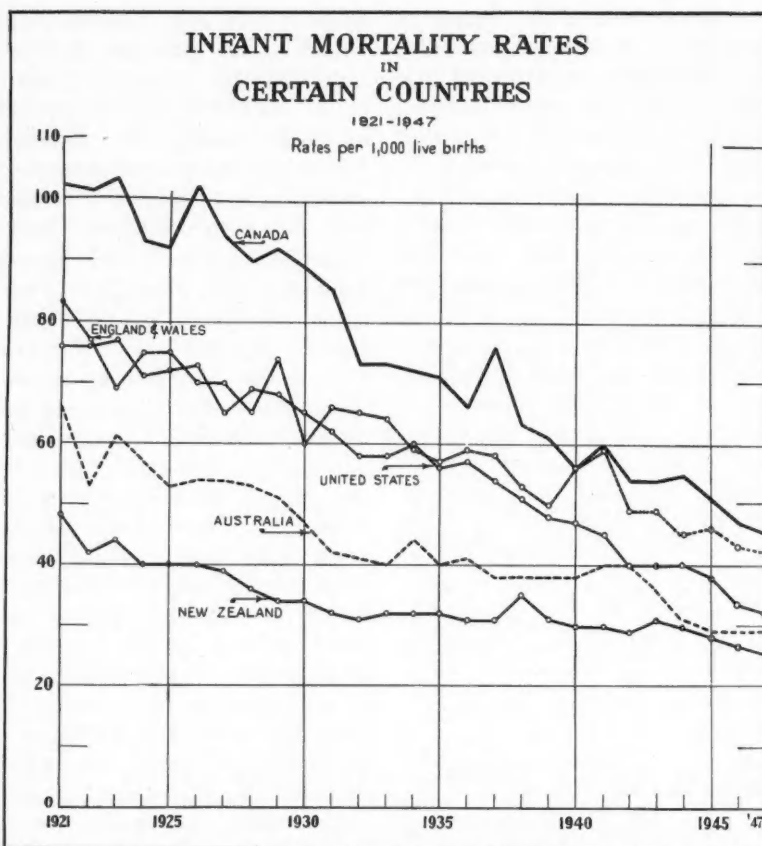


FIGURE 1

out of 47 countries. The increase in cancer death rate has been particularly high in Canada in comparison with other countries.

The expectation of life at birth for males in Canada in 1941 was 62.95, and for females 66.29 years, and Canada ranked 6th with respect to 49 areas for males and 43 areas for females, being exceeded by the Netherlands, New Zealand, Sweden and Australia with respect to both males and females, and Denmark for males and the United

States for females.

An early form of government medical care program was the provincial aid given to municipal doctor plans in western provinces, particularly Saskatchewan. It was found that in the rural districts there was difficulty in obtaining the services of a physician, partly because of lack of funds, and partly because of the nature of the area to be served, lack of hospital facilities, etc. This type of development was in contrast to or in

some instances supplementary to the county health unit already mentioned, which was primarily devoted to preventive health measures, rather than to medical care of individuals.

HEALTH INSURANCE PLANS

With the increasing urbanization in Canada and the rising cost of medical care, it has become generally accepted that chronic disease, serious accident, or other

illness requiring hospitalization, operation or long periods of convalescence represent an intolerable financial burden to most individuals, and particularly to families. Early efforts to deal with this problem took the usual form of municipal responsibility for indigent cases, but this is now not considered to be an adequate solution to the problem, and the insurance principle of prepayment is being more generally adopted.

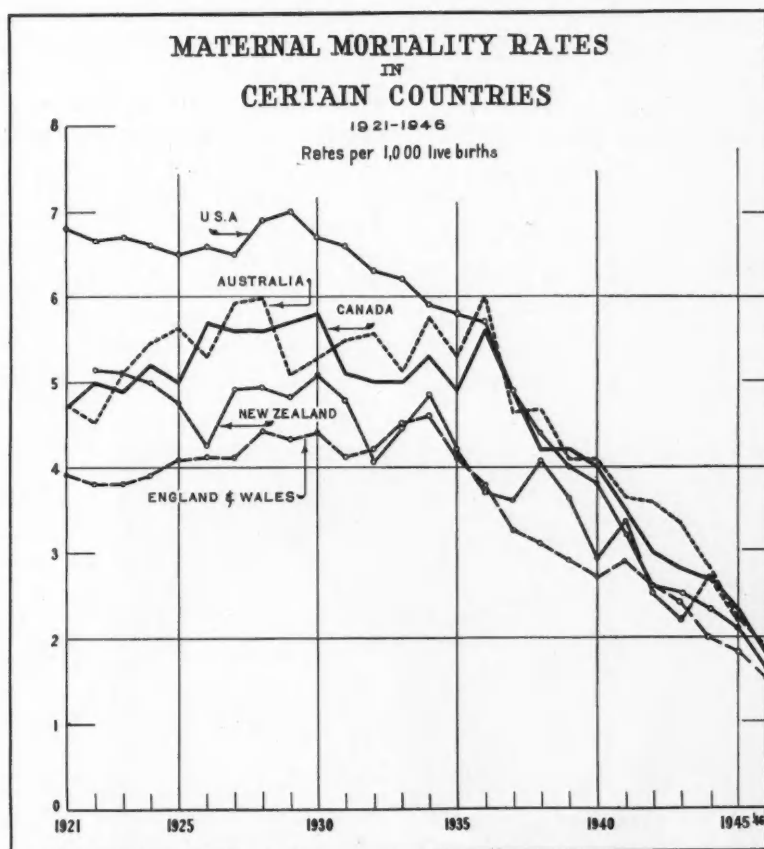


FIGURE 2

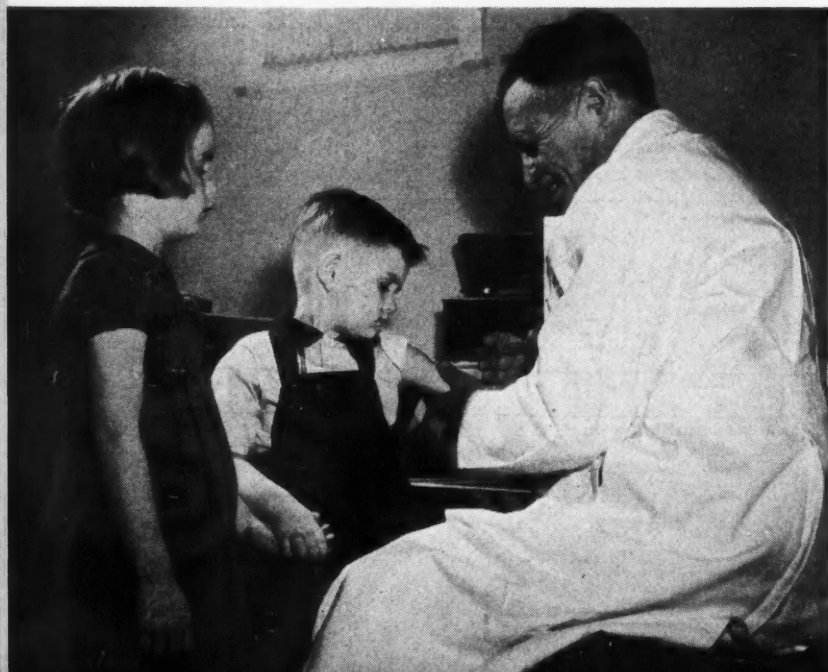
In Canada, the medical profession has approved of the principle of health insurance, and the medical and hospital associations have taken the leadership in sponsoring prepayment medical plans. Plans for hospital care have been particularly successful, and now have over two million subscribers in Canada. The plans providing physician's care cover a much smaller number of persons. Saskatchewan has pioneered in the provision of hospital services for all residents. There is complete coverage on an annual fee basis, with a maximum for a family. British Columbia is instituting a similar service in January, 1949.

The federal Department of Health was organized originally more than 25 years ago as a result of repeated representations by the medical profession and health organizations and other interested groups, but lost its separate identity in 1928 when it became part

of the new Department of Pensions and National Health. Its re-establishment in 1944 as the Department of National Health and Welfare is notable as indicating acceptance of the broad view of public health and its relationship to social welfare.

Traditionally, health has been a matter of provincial jurisdiction, although the British North America Act does not mention public health specifically. However, the increase of provincial expenditures on health and hospital services by about five times in the past quarter-century has necessitated federal support, if the level of services in the provinces is to be maintained and developed. The Dominion Government has this year announced a National Health Grant Program which was hailed as an outstanding contribution to public health in this country. It is expected that the financial assis-

National Film Board Photo



**Immunization
in clinic**

tance to the provinces made available under this program will act as a stimulus to provincial activities and will give impetus to the progress already made. The provision of professional training and hospital construction grants should contribute materially to solution of the problems of deficiency in trained staff and hospital accommodation which have become acute in recent years.

When the National Health Grants Program becomes fully operative, we will be that much nearer the ultimate goal of all health activities, which is to ensure that every citizen of Canada, no matter where he lives, or what his economic status may be, will have everything medical science has to offer for the promotion of health, the prevention of disease, and the cure of illness.

Canadian Recreation Congress

MONTREAL, SEPTEMBER 13-23, 1949

THE decision to hold a national congress on recreation—the first and biggest of its kind ever attempted in Canada—was made by representatives of recreation organizations meeting at the University of Montreal on March 13, 1948. Machinery to place the Congress on an official basis was instituted at that meeting and Chas. E. Hendry, Toronto, and Henri G. Gonthier, Montreal, were elected Co-Chairmen, with authority to set up a planning committee.

The national congress idea originated at the annual meeting of the Recreation Division, Canadian Welfare Council, in May, 1947. In September of that year an exploratory conference was called in Ottawa by the Hon. Paul Martin, Minister of National

Health and Welfare, upon the Canadian Welfare Council's suggestion. Representatives of twenty national agencies attended.

The result of six months spade work is the announcement that a constitution has been drafted, that committees are being set up, that the real business of the Congress is swinging into action, that the date of the Congress will be September 13-23, 1949, and the place, Montreal.

The "creation" of the Congress is made possible through the co-operation of a sponsoring group of national organizations active in recreation in Canada. It is to be held every second year and will provide a device to synchronize many national conferences previously held separately. Thus co-operative planning will conserve

energy, time and funds by convening these meetings in the same city during a given period. Independent organizations, associations and groups concerned with recreation will be invited to arrange with the governing committee to hold meetings in conjunction with the Congress.

The purpose of the Congress will be to bring together individuals, groups and organizations interested in recreation and to provide an opportunity to exchange experiences with a view to discussion, development and interpretation of recreation throughout Canada. This means recreation in its broadest sense including its cultural and educational aspects. Too often the word "recreation" signifies sports and games only and people fail to recognize all its other phases—music, drama, handicrafts and the whole field of adult education. It is intended to make the Canadian Recreation Congress broad in scope, as detailed in program as possible, and, of course, bi-lingual in character.

Among the national organizations giving active support to the Congress are the National Council on Physical Fitness; Canadian Association for Adult Education; La Société Canadienne d'enseignement post-scolaire; Canadian Association for Health, Physical

Education and Recreation; Canadian Camping Association; Canadian Citizenship Council, and Recreation Division of the Canadian Welfare Council. Expressions of good wishes for success have already been received from the National Recreation Association and the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation.

The Canadian Recreation Congress will be the first of its kind in this Dominion. Those who take part will be sharing in writing history! And it is the earnest desire of those responsible to give everyone interested an opportunity to participate. This can be done only with the goodwill and co-operation of all organizations concerned with recreation.

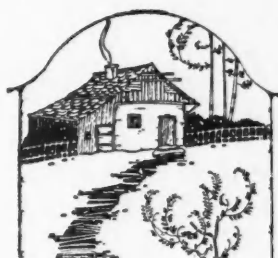
Promotion plans include the regular issuance of a bulletin to keep the constituency posted as to developments and progress in regard to program as well as physical arrangements and news of who is doing what about the Congress.

Miss Beatrix Graham, Community Councils Consultant with the Montreal Parks and Playgrounds Association, has been appointed Executive Secretary of the Congress, and has been given leave of absence for a year. The Association is also generously donating office space for the work.



Housing Needs and Community Planning

By HUMPHREY CARVER



DURING the last quarter-century there has been a gradual intensification of the housing crisis with which Canada is now faced. It is certainly no easy task to keep pace with the housing requirements of a rapidly expanding nation. But Canada's technological and administrative skills have not been successfully applied to the country's housing and community planning problems.

It is true that about one million houses have been built since 1924 and that almost a third of all the housing we now possess has been constructed during this period. But there are now almost a million and a quarter more families than there were in 1924. The number of families is now increasing at the rate of 90,000 a year and with housing production at record volume we are now building at the rate of only 80,000 units a year. Not only has the production of

houses failed to keep pace with the net increase in the number of families, but it must also be recognized that the stock of houses with which we entered the period is now a quarter-century older.

The plain fact is that the population is in many respects less adequately housed today than it was in 1924. Though there have been some technical advances in household mechanical apparatus yet there has been remarkably little change in the quality of housing produced; the typical house of the 1940's is smaller than that of the 1920's. Industrialists may well ponder the fact that in spite of all their technological "know-how", it now costs exactly twice as much to build a house as it did before the war. With rare exceptions, also, the planning of residential areas continues to follow a stereotyped pattern; the subdivision of land is still regarded as nothing more than the provision of a grid

Humphrey Carver was trained as an architect in England. He came to Canada in 1930, was in private practice as a planner and taught at the School of Architecture, University of Toronto. After three years in the Army, he was engaged on housing research at Toronto's School of Social Work and is now Supervisor of Research for the Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation, Ottawa.

or framework within which individual houses are to be built, regardless of design or organic arrangement.

This has been a period of intense national development stimulated by a spectacular advance of the physical sciences. Since the vitality of our economy, both in peace and in war, has been closely associated with the industrial techniques of mining, manufacturing and mechanical equipment Canadians have come to place great confidence in these material techniques for the solution of all their national problems. Perhaps this has led us to look in the wrong direction for the solution of our housing problems. The building of houses and communities is a social enterprise and an art, as much as it is a task of industrial production and structural engineering.

During the last quarter-century, three important developments have taken place in the western world which have started a process of change in the nature of urban communities:

- (1) The filling out of a community's housing needs has come to be regarded as a social responsibility requiring direct action by public authority.

- (2) Architecture has begun to emancipate itself from the conventional forms imposed by 19th century sentiments and has begun to reach out for an expression characteristic of the present period.

- (3) The ugliness and inefficiency of the cities created by the un-

directed forces of modern industry and commerce have made it clear that communities must be deliberately planned if they are to fulfill the aspirations of their residents.

Canada has not been entirely insensitive to the emergence of these ideas; but it has been difficult to bring them to practical application while the physical development of the country's resources has emphasized the apparently unbounded potentialities of industrial technology.

CANADA'S FIRST STEPS

Awareness of the crisis towards which events were moving was first apparent about 1934. It must be recalled that there was a building boom during the eight years 1924-1931 which produced 328,000 housing units, an average production of 41,000 units a year. But during the following 8 years 1932-1939 only 185,000 houses were built, an average of only 23,000 a year. It is hardly surprising that by 1934 the big cities had begun to feel the shortage and particularly to witness the increasing pressure placed upon low-rental accommodation.

The "Bruce Report" of 1934 was the first thorough study of this situation, as exemplified by Toronto. In April 1935 a special Parliamentary Committee on Housing was appointed and, in an 18 page statement, concluded *inter alia* that a "national emergency will soon develop unless the building of dwellings be greatly increased" and stated that "the formulation,

institution and pursuit of a policy of adequate housing should be accepted as a social responsibility". To this end the Committee recommended that a "Housing Authority be established with power to initiate, direct and control projects and policies. . . ."

But the country was not ready for any such action and after these massive statements there emerged a somewhat minor piece of legislation, the Dominion Housing Act of 1935—which is important only because it was the federal government's first excursion into housing business. By this Act the government, through the Department of Finance, offered to loan 20 per cent of the value of a house and a lot, in conjunction with a lending institution which would advance 60 per cent. During the 3 years of the Act's operation less than 5,000 housing units were financed by this means.

Then in 1938 this legislation was replaced by the National Housing Act through which, in the three years 1939-1941, more than 15,000 units were financed. In the three intense war years 1942-1944 the Act was used in the building of only 4,200 units.

The 1938 Act was then in turn replaced by the National Housing Act 1944, which in the three post-war years 1946-1948 has been used for financing nearly 45,000 houses or about one-fifth of all the houses built during these three active years. It can be seen therefore that in facilitating loans for the building of houses the federal govern-

ment has played an increasingly important role.

Beyond the normal lending arrangements contained in the 1938 Act some efforts were also made to bring new housing to those outside this market. Part I of the Act provided for 90% loans for the building of owner-occupied dwellings which did not cost more than \$2,500 (*sic*). Part II of the same Act offered 80% loans at 2 per cent to limited-dividend corporations and 90% loans to municipal authorities which would provide low-rental housing. For such loans a sum of \$30 million was available, but when this legislation expired in 1940 not a dollar had been used. There were, in fact, no limited-dividend corporations or local housing authorities in existence to use the Act and the federal government did not take the initiative to bring them into existence.

Profiting from this experience when the 1944 National Housing Act was introduced the federal government initiated steps for creating the limited-dividend corporation known as Housing Enterprises, Limited. This was set up as a joint enterprise of the insurance companies to use Part II of the 1944 Act by which 3% loans could be obtained up to 90% of the value of a project. The abortive experience of Housing Enterprises Limited in the post-war years has demonstrated however that low rental housing cannot be produced in this way.

THE CURTIS REPORT

Post-war developments were preceded by the publication of the "Curtis Report" in March 1944. The very nature of this Report demonstrates the change of climate that had taken place since the Parliamentary Committee of 1935 had commented that there was "very little definite data concerning the situation generally throughout Canada". The Curtis Report, produced by a sub-committee of the federal government's Housing Committee on Reconstruction, is a 300 page book which must rank as one of the most carefully documented and comprehensive statements of housing policy which has been produced by any nation. The report dealt with the housing needs of all sections of the population and emphasized the value of casting the housing program within the framework of community planning.

In January 1945 the new National Housing Act came into operation and in December of the same year the Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation was established as the federal government's agency for administering the nation's housing affairs. Thus for the first time, Canada possessed a central authority which could assume whatever housing responsibilities might be placed upon it. The C.M.H.C. has, in fact, assumed responsibilities far beyond the terms of the National Housing Act 1944, and in doing so has substantiated the contentions of the 1935 Committee and of the

Curtis Committee that Housing policy must be directed as a unified whole.

In 1947 C.M.H.C. absorbed Wartime Housing Limited, which since 1941 had operated as an independent crown corporation and had provided a substantial quantity of rental housing for industrial workers during the war and for veterans after the war. By this agency more than 37,000 units have been produced in the period 1941-1948, production averaging about 6,000 units a year except during 1944 and 1945 when only 1,500 units a year were built. With the exception of a few war-time dormitory buildings the accommodation has taken the form of single-family houses of simple frame construction with rents ranging between \$27 and \$37 a month. These houses are now a familiar feature of the Canadian landscape, recognizable on account of their almost uniform design from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

EMERGENCY SHELTER

At the close of the war the Federal Government became responsible for providing emergency shelter for families who found themselves in the ultimate predicament of having no roof over their heads. This responsibility was subsequently assumed by the Central Mortgage and Housing Corporation. By converting government-owned property and miscellaneous buildings more than 10,000 emergency-shelter units were created from 1945 to 1948. For the most part these were in the large metropolitan cities where

the housing shortage assumed its most critical form when veterans congregated around the rapidly developing post-war industries. The federal government paid \$15 million and the municipalities paid \$5 million towards the cost of converting property for emergency-shelter use.

In the post-war period much public interest has been focused upon the question of the ultimate responsibility for low-rental housing, since this is universally recognized as the hard core of the housing problem. The Federal Government's Minister responsible for housing policy has on many occasions stated that this is a function of property and civil rights and, constitutionally, therefore, responsibility of provincial and municipal governments. It has frequently been pointed out by official spokesmen that the national government only got into the rental-housing business as a war emergency measure to accommodate workers who had to be moved to industrial centres. It has been explained that the federal government continued to build rental housing for veterans after the war only on account of its special responsibility for their rehabilitation. But "as far as the long-term housing program is concerned Dominion participation must necessarily be indirect because of the constitutional limitations. . . . The authority lies with the provinces and the Dominion can participate directly only when it is invited to do so. . . . Generally speaking Dominion government

action must be confined to easing credit terms and providing assistance to contractors who are active in house building".

Since the need for low-rental housing is becoming more and more urgent and since the Canadian people are not notably lacking in the ingenuity required to overcome such constitutional obstacles, it is obvious that some neat solution will soon be found to this impasse. Already the city of Toronto is embarked upon a large slum-clearance low-rental project supported by grants from the federal and provincial governments and by rent subsidies from the municipality.

COMMUNITY PLANNING

It is easier to plot the history of housing than to record the development of community planning during the last 25 years. It takes less than a year to build a house and the processes of housebuilding respond comparatively quickly and evidently to economic circumstances and design influences. On the other hand, communities are shaped on a time-scale of decades, if not quarter centuries. The influences of legislation and design are slow to exert their pressures upon the forms of cities; the houses built today take their places on the streets planned a dozen years ago. Community planning is a complex and far-reaching operation and those who look for immediate material results from their daily actions in life are inclined to be skeptical and impatient when such long-term issues are involved.

A few isolated communities have been entirely created during the last few years, for example Terrace Bay and Marathon on the north shore of Lake Superior, Deep River* (the "atomic town"), and Devon in the Leduc oil-fields. Though these communities perhaps most accurately reflect contemporary Canadian thought on urban design, yet they are insignificant as compared with the slowly emerging efforts to bring under control the sprawling suburbs of the big cities. The progress of Canadian planning is, rather, to be measured by the fact that, of the 24 cities with populations of more than 30,000, 21 have established some kind of planning board or agency and 16 have produced some kind of plan. Among the smaller towns, those with populations between 5,000 and 30,000, less than half have any kind of planning organization. From this it is apparent that in the larger cities at least, planning organizations have come to assume a place of some permanence in civic affairs.

Since the establishment of planning agencies has been almost entirely a development of the last 25 years, the application of planning is still at a somewhat rudimentary stage. It may be said that Canada has only just entered that period in which the doctrines, techniques and practice of community planning will be worked out.

Perhaps the present stage is comparable with that reached in Great Britain before the first Great

War. Legislation is sketchy and of a purely "permissive" character. There is only a handful of experienced professional planners and circumstances enable them to do little more than produce "master plans" and then leave communities to work out their development as best they can. But again, as in the field of housing, the real progress has been beneath the surface where public appreciation of the purposes and needs of community planning has advanced immeasurably during the last 25 years.

During 1948 there were five Regional Conferences of the Community Planning Association of Canada, an organization embracing planning officials, consultants and laymen. From the very nature of the discussions it is evident that a creative process is taking place and that the objectives and techniques of Canadian community planning are beginning to emerge. The dilemmas are evident and intriguing. On the one hand, there is a considerable skepticism as to the value of the whole legal system of zoning on which American planning has been based and which has failed so obviously to make American cities either beautiful or efficient. On the other hand, there is a natural apprehension that the kind of positive planning which Great Britain has now evolved would circumscribe the vital and spontaneous forces by which Canadian communities are growing. Will Canada be able to find a way to meet the peculiar and characteristic needs of this country?

*See *Canadian Welfare*, October 15, 1948.

Child Welfare in Alberta

THE Royal Commission on Child Welfare in Alberta has issued a 125 page report which will be reviewed fully in *Canadian Welfare* as soon as copies become available. Meanwhile, here is a summary of the recommendations of the Report, secured from local press reports.

1. That the Alberta Child Welfare Commission promote local child welfare organizations and see that every community over 3000 population is adequately staffed with workers.
2. That the Provincial Child Welfare Branch proceed at once to institute personnel training.
3. That adequate adoption procedures be formulated and adhered to.
4. That there should be re-examination of that section of the Child Welfare Act which provides that applications to adopt be made to the Commission instead of to a Judge.
5. That the soundness of family casework be recognized and made generally available.
6. That the Commission be reconstituted so as to allow for public representation.
7. That full cooperation be available to private social agencies.
8. That the Child Welfare Branch secure organization and funds so that it may relieve poverty when it is a source of danger to a child in his home.
9. That intensive search be made for foster homes for non-adoptable children, more paid homes secured, and adequate investigation and follow-up provided.
10. That welfare workers be assigned in Calgary and Edmonton to do casework with unmarried mothers.
11. That a provincial social service exchange be set up.
12. That cross-border placements of children be discontinued.
13. That the situation in regard to the Cromdale shelter be reviewed.
14. That until detention facilities are brought up to date, delinquents should be held the shortest time possible.
15. That the power to the Provincial Superintendent of Child Welfare to commit to places of confinement other than detention homes should not be exercised.
16. That help and placements for delinquents past the age of 18 should be available.
17. That institutional training for delinquent boys be immediately instituted under Provincial auspices.
18. That juvenile court judges be carefully selected, appointed and paid by the attorney general.
19. That all child welfare work should be withdrawn from the nine regional inspectors now in office as employees of the Department of Welfare.
20. That the Child Welfare Branch exercise its powers of supervision and control over the municipal children's aid of the city of Edmonton.
21. That case histories be supplied on committal of a ward to an institution.
22. That girls should not be committed to a correctional institution unless and until they are found by a court to be delinquent.
23. That advice be furnished to unmarried mothers wherever possible at the level of the local agent of the Crown.

HISTORICAL

- 1886 J. J. Kelso, a Toronto reporter, began his campaign to help neglected and delinquent children and with increasing community support launched the Canadian child welfare movement.
- 1887 The Toronto Humane Society was formed to deal with cruelty to children and animals.
- 1888 Married Women's Maintenance legislation passed by Ontario, made its first appearance in the Criminal Code in 1892, and in up-to-date form is found today in all provinces.
- 1888 The first Act providing for the commitment of neglected children to any society willing to receive them, and for a special commissioner to try youthful offenders was passed by Ontario.
- 1891 Toronto Children's Aid Society formed, the first of over 90 Societies.
- 1892 Prisoners' Aid Society of Montreal is the oldest in continuous service. There are now 14 Societies in 7 Provinces.
- 1893 The first modern Child Protection Act was passed in Ontario, based in part on the South Australia Act of 1872, providing for the establishment of Children's Aid Societies, and the commitment to their guardianship or that of a relative or other fit person of neglected and delinquent children who could not be rehabilitated in their own homes, and for whom foster homes must be found.
- 1893 J. J. Kelso was appointed Superintendent of Neglected and Dependent Children in Ontario, to administer the new Act, the first such appointment in Canada.
- 1894 Section 550 of the Criminal Code was amended to provide for private trials of offenders under 16 and detention prior to sentence apart from adults.
- 1895 Park Protective Association founded in Montreal to develop public playgrounds. Now known as the Montreal Parks and Playgrounds Association Inc.
- 1896 The first "prison without walls" in Canada, was Guelph prison farm.
- 1897 The Ontario Legislature passed an act to regulate juvenile immigration, first of its kind in Canada.
- 1898 The first Canadian Conference of Charities and Corrections took place, the forerunner of the Canadian Conference on Social Work.
- 1899 Montreal formed the first family agency, the Charity Organization Society, now the Family Welfare Association, to coordinate local welfare services and help the poor, whom a founder classified as "God's poor, the Devil's poor, and the poor devils."
- 1906 The first probation service in Canada was organized by the Ottawa Children's Aid Society.
- 1908 The federal Juvenile Delinquents Act on which all subsequent services for delinquents have been built, was passed. Winnipeg was the first city to establish a juvenile court and Alberta the first to proclaim it on a province-wide basis. With several subsequent amendments and re-drafting in 1929, it remains the basic statute for dealing with juvenile delinquents.
- 1913 As additional protection for children, the Ontario Children's Protection Act was amended to make it mandatory for a judge committing a child, to make a maintenance order against the municipality of residence.
- 1914 Modernized Workmen's Compensation legislation passed by Ontario. Such laws now exist in eight Provinces.
- 1914 The first of seven Schools of Social Work was organized at Toronto.

CONFEDERATION, which first established provincial authorities, makes a logical historical highlights, to serve as background for WELFARE. Procedure and philosophy have elementary grants were a half million dollars for federal, provincial and municipal health and \$850 million.

Shelter in a variety of private institutions, authorities, private industrial schools for the reformatories for delinquents under 21, were children in 1867. The early Ontario story is the first developments in modern child protection course followed by community thinking there.

- 1916 Manitoba enacted the first Mother's Allowance legislation, thus enabling competent widowed mothers to keep their homes together. Today 8 provinces have this legislation.
- 1917 The Federation of Jewish Philanthropies in Montreal was the first Community Chest in Canada, and there are now 48 indicating the growth in federated financing.
- 1917 Additional security was given children when British Columbia passed the first act to provide that the parents of a child had equal guardianship responsibilities. Four other provinces now have this legislation.
- 1918 The Canadian National Committee on Mental Hygiene was founded to develop preventive and treatment services for mental illness.
- 1918 Employment Offices Co-ordination Act passed providing federal aid of not more than 50% of cost to provincially supervised employment offices.
- 1919 The Dominion Government formed the Department of Health, which was the forerunner of the present Department of National Health and Welfare.
- 1920 Among the first protections for illegitimate children were the statutes providing for the legitimization of children born out of wedlock, first passed by Manitoba, New Brunswick, Saskatchewan and P.E.I. and now in general effect (always in Quebec Civil Code).
- 1920 The Dominion for the first time contributed to the unemployment relief costs of the provinces and certain municipalities by grants but did not pass any unemployment relief legislation until 1930.
- 1920 The Canadian Welfare Council, then known as the Canadian Council on Child Welfare was established in 1920, following a conference called by the Dominion Department of Health to discuss the need of a Dominion clearing house for child welfare services.
- 1921 The Children of Unmarried Parents Act was a major step because of its expression of State concern and was first effectively operated by Ontario, although in existence in other provinces at an earlier date.
- 1921 Absolute adoption, which had not previously existed under the laws of England, was first known in Ontario through the Adoption Act of 1921. It now exists in every province thus giving maximum protection to the adopted child.

HIGHLIGHTS

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have changed greatly since 1866, when Parlia-
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r the training of destitute boys and girls, and two
ere about all that was available for neglected
is reported in detail, because it represents the
ion of Canada, and also because it shows the
there and elsewhere.

- 1925 After Council activity had led to a **British Government Commission** in 1924 to study the problems of British Immigrant children, some 73,000 of whom had come under the auspices of private agencies between 1868 and 1918, an agreement was reached restricting emigration to children of school leaving age i.e. 14. Legislation in the provinces was developed and modernized.
- 1925 References to indeterminate sentences, probation, and parole, appeared in the federal **Prisons and Reformatories Act** amendments. Advance in this field has been slow.
- 1926 Canada passed amendments to the **Canada Shipping Act** protecting children employed at sea. Protective legislation had been gradually built up in provincial statutes over the past 40 years.
- 1926 An important example of the interpretation and clarification which must go on almost continuously if legislation is to be effective, was the "**Whitbread case**." This was an opinion of the Ontario Appellate Court which upheld the Toronto Children's Aid Society in its request for full rather than partial maintenance for its wards from the municipality and provided a useful precedent.
- 1926 **Charlotte Whitton**, Secretary of the **Canadian Council on Child Welfare**, was appointed Commissioner to enquire into the administration of the **Child Welfare Division of the Manitoba Department of Health and Public Welfare**, thus initiating the Council's many important provincial and local surveys.
- 1927 The federal **Old Age Pension Act** was passed providing for federal assistance of 50% towards the cost of provincially administered pensions and was amended in 1931 to increase federal aid to 75%.
- 1928 The federal **Department of Health** was merged with the newly created **Department of Pensions and National Health**.
- 1928 **Manitoba** passed the first legislation to establish a provincial department of health and public welfare to supervise health and welfare services.
- 1929 The **Magistrate's Jurisdiction Act** in 1929 passed by Ontario made family courts possible by extending scope of justices, magistrates and Juvenile Court judges.

- 1934 The first **Juvenile and Family Court** law was passed by Ontario and was the forerunner of similar developments in three other provinces which saw the value of a socialized type of court service.
- 1935 The **Dominion Housing Act** was the first federal legislation specifically devoted to assisting the building of houses. Other Housing Acts were passed in 1938 and 1944.
- 1936 An urgently needed **Royal Commission to Investigate the Penal System of Canada** headed by Judge Archambault was set up and the Council's Brief emphasized the problems of the young offender.
- 1937 **Old Age Pension Act** amended to include pensions for the blind.
- 1938 The **Royal Commission on Dominion Provincial Relations** whose report is better known as the **Rowell-Sirois Report**, began its work. The Council's Brief contained proposals for Dominion-Provincial partnership in child and family protection.
- 1938 A serious questioning of the jurisdiction of juvenile and family courts in five pieces of social legislation mainly affecting children, having arisen as a result of decisions by two lower courts, the problem was taken to the Supreme Court of Canada and in a decision known as **Clubine vs Clubine** the rights of the provinces to assign such responsibilities to these courts was upheld.
- 1939 The **Youth Training Act** gave federal aid to the provinces with technical education.
- 1939 The Council gave leadership in the rapid adaptation of the services of civilian agencies to serve the dependents of men in the armed forces.
- 1940 The passing of the **Unemployment Insurance Act** was a major advance requiring an amendment to the **B.N.A. Act** giving the federal government sole jurisdiction in the field of unemployment insurance. This year marked the end of federal grants to provincial employment offices, and the founding of the **National Employment Service** under the supervision of the **Unemployment Insurance Commission**.
- 1940 Some 7000 British guest children came to Canada for safety as a result of planning in which the Council was actively involved.
- 1942 First federal-provincial agreement on **War-time Day Nurseries** concluded with Ontario.
- 1943 The federal government passed the **National Physical Fitness Act** which now provides financial assistance to seven provinces.
- 1944 The **Department of National Health and Welfare** was established, superseding the **Department of Pensions and National Health**, and giving Canada a national welfare portfolio for the first time.
- 1944 **Department of Veterans' Affairs** established.
- 1944 The **National Committee of Canadian Schools of Social Work** was established. This indicated the advance in professional training which was recognized by the first federal grant to the **Schools** in 1946 of \$100,000.
- 1944 The passing of the **Family Allowances Act**, with its social and economic implications, indicates the trend towards security and opportunity for families.
- 1948 Parliament voted \$30 million in national health grants to the provinces for hospital construction, research, training of personnel etc. thereby supporting efforts to improve the health of all Canadians.

MEMORABILIA

CHARLOTTE WHITTON



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CHARLOTTE WHITTON,
C.B.E., M.A., LL.D., D.C.L., (King's and Acadia)

THE first substantial national publication in what might today be described as the field of *social welfare* is probably the report of the first Canadian National Social Service Congress held in Ottawa, thirty-five years ago, March 3-5, 1914. It was organized by the Social Service Council of Canada, which had been founded in December, 1907, as the Moral and Social Reform Council of Canada. Originally an inter-church Committee of the Anglican, Baptist, Congregational, Evangelical, Methodist and Presbyterian Churches, and the Salvation Army, it had been enlarged and extended to broader undertakings by the adherence to membership of the W.C.T.U., the Purity Education Association, the Dominion Grange and Farmers' Association and the

Trades and Labour Congress of Canada.

1919-1924

Among the resolutions of this first Social Congress in 1914 had been two related items requesting "the creation of a Canadian Department of Child Welfare" (definitely inspired by Woodrow Wilson's creation of the U.S.A. Children's Bureau in 1912 with Julia Lathrop as Chief); and "the establishment of a bureau of Social Surveys and Research by the Social Service Council of Canada".

Mobilization later in 1914, revealed startling conditions of physical impairment, malnutrition and premature mortality among the Canadian people; the postwar flu epidemic in 1918-19 burned further

into the consciousness of Canadians. Their immediate demands focused on the need for an over-all approach to the problems of the public health, and the government responded by the creation of the Federal Department of Health in 1919, with a Child Hygiene Division therein. Even the appointment of probably the best known and qualified woman of the day, Dr. Helen MacMurchy of Toronto, as the Chief did not satisfy the proponents of the Children's Bureau idea. On the other hand, the Constitution, and, more inflexible, the history, characteristics and institutions of civil life and government in Canada forbade the intrusion of the Dominion authority into such areas as guardianship, the protection and care of children, etc. The new Deputy Minister of Health, Dr. John A. Amyot, and Dr. MacMurchy met with a group, convened by the Social Service Council of Canada, in Toronto in the spring of 1920 and there agreed to convene a Child Welfare Conference in Ottawa in October of that year.

There, in three days of controversy and debate, it was decided that the peculiar needs of the Canadian situation might best be met by the creation of an officially recognized but voluntarily governed Council or clearing house for the problems of child welfare common to all the provinces, and in which jurisdiction and administration were dispersed over numerous voluntary, municipal

and provincial services, sturdy in the pattern and growth of custom, statute, by-law, regulation and practice.

An interim Canadian Council on Child Welfare was set up, its first president, Mrs. H. E. Todd of Orillia, president of the Federation of Women's Institutes, and I was lent as honorary secretary by the Social Service Council of Canada. In the spring of 1921 the interim executive met at Ottawa and adopted a formal constitution for the Council, the draftmanship of J. Howard T. Falk, first Director of the McGill School of Social Work, and later of the Financial Federation of Montreal.

The Dominion Government (Mr. Arthur Meighen being Prime Minister) agreed to recognize the young Council and to make a grant of \$1,000 toward its budget. This support was conditional upon bringing into its mechanism the child welfare activities of the provinces, a goodly representation of those of the municipalities, and of the major voluntary agencies.

The Meighen Government was defeated in December of that year. Mr. MacKenzie King took into his first ministry the Hon. Thomas A. Low of Renfrew, who appointed me as his private secretary and agreed to my retention of the honorary secretaryship of the Council. The new Prime Minister had come into office on a strong platform of "industry and humanity." The new Government agreed to increase the grant to the Council to \$5,000 upon assurance

of reasonable "matching" funds from voluntary sources.

P.O. BOX 753

At this time the young Council was existing in "Post Office Box 753", Ottawa, and its assets were a second-hand filing cabinet, typewriter, and typewriter stand, (which remained on active service until 1932 when a bad fall ruined it finally). They were all garnered from the thriving Canadian Tuberculosis Association to which Dr. R. E. Wodehouse (later Deputy Minister of Pensions and National Health) had brought new vitality. There was also a second-hand table in my apartment where my friend, Margaret Grier, Assistant Secretary of the Canadian Tuberculosis Association, gave voluntary typing and clerical service in her spare time for over a year to keep this ill-favoured foundling alive.

Mrs. Sidney Small of Toronto had joined the Committee trying to assure voluntary funds. They made enough progress to justify the appointment of a full time office secretary,—Miss Kate Dixon, B.A., now of the National Revenue Department, who was to serve the Council for seven self denying years. A small office was obtained in the Blackburn Building, so dark and unpretentious that we still kept the post office box address so that no one would call and see how poor we were for we were putting up a better front all the time.

Then the Department of Health and those trying to get backing and members, all across the country decided there must be a

publication, even an occasional booklet to "tell what we were doing and what was happening in child welfare". It was felt that *Social Welfare* was essentially an inter-church publication with a fine philosophical approach to the field but that Canada also needed a technical child welfare publication, comparable to the official bulletins of the expanding mental hygiene, social hygiene, and tuberculosis associations. The national organizations offered dockets of their work. The provincial welfare officials made up reports where they had never reported before. Our good friend, Grace Abbott, by now Chief of the Children's Bureau, not only offered U.S.A. notes but sent up a sheaf of world news. The Canadian Tuberculosis Association gave us a scoop on their own bulletin with word of their child chest survey—the first of its kind in Canada. In fact, Dr. Wodehouse lent a part-time stenographer to help Miss Grier with the amateurish typing.

Tom Moore, President of the Trades and Labour Congress, saw what he could do about printing costs and the Progressive Printers unearthed some of the worst looking end lots of newsprint and two job lots of cut-offs of sales bills, one a lurid and violent Dr. Williams pink pills shade. After grave deliberation we risked printing about 300, and the Tuberculosis Association lent us the envelopes for mailing. We had a bee for that.

And with the flowers that bloomed in the spring of 1924, the

first issue of the *Canadian Child Welfare News* left the presses.

THE PLAZA BUILDING

Meanwhile the Government had honoured its word, and the grant had been increased to \$5,000. Montreal, Toronto and Ottawa friends had already raised a comparable amount, and the future was sufficiently assured to permit the opening of permanent offices in the Plaza Building in December, 1926, when I transferred as full-time Director in which post I was to endure for fifteen years.

Then came another break. Our good friend Grace Abbott, working through her Government succeeded in obtaining an assessorship, to be held by the Secretary of the Canadian Council on Child Welfare, in the Child Welfare Committee of the League of Nations. Thus, in five years the Council had become a fact, recognized at home and abroad as the official clearing-house in child and family welfare in the Dominion.



COUNCIL HOUSE

In 1930, on a loan from Mrs. J. A. Stewart of Perth, the fine Gilmour home located at 245 Cooper Street was purchased and became "Council House". There were changes, always of growth and adaptation, as the Council first took on family welfare and the little bulletin became *Child and Family Welfare*. When in widening concepts the Council wisely broadened to the Canadian Welfare Council, the magazine became *Canadian Welfare*.

Throughout the quarter century, the publication has never been spectacular nor pretentious; it has rather sought the truth of fact and the strength of sincerity in the presentation of that truth as the Council and its staff saw it. It began as an adventure in conviction, faith and hope in the cause of true charity; and, as it began, in the generous and happy service of those who believed in it, so it has continued. Though the Council's budget now exceeds \$90,000 a year, *Canadian Welfare* has never paid an editor nor a contributor. It is issued as the avocation of the staff members, entrusted with the Council's general administration; it is supervised by competent Canadian writers and journalists who give their services: its articles are written by burdened and busy workers in welfare and related fields, because they feel that it is their own and still voices the hopes and faith and fears of those who labour in this land "in the union of all who love, in the service of all who suffer".

Twenty-Five Years of Mental Hygiene

By C. M. HINCKS, M.D.

TWENTY-FIVE years ago those engaged in mental hygiene work directed their chief attention to the fostering of humanitarian care among patients who were resident in our mental hospitals. Physical and psychological abuses were prevalent in many institutions in Canada. It was taken for granted that the so-called insane were lucky to have a roof over their heads. There was little regard in many hospitals for occupational therapy; for the segregation of patients according to type; for good nursing; for the provision of decent food; and for anything approaching therapy. In many hospitals in the Dominion, there were to be found hundreds of patients subjected to deadening idleness. Those who were disturbed were often placed in solitary confinement or subjected to mechanical restraint. To indicate the state of affairs, at this period, reference will be made to the findings in one Canadian mental hospital by the National Committee for mental Hygiene in 1918. While the findings relate to 1918 there were still a number of hospitals in Canada in

1924, which were guilty of similar malpractices.

The hospital in question, in the year 1918, had a patient population of 800 mentally ill persons. There was only one medical man in attendance and practically all of his time was devoted to administration and to routine matters. There was not one trained nurse in the entire institution. The male attendants were a rough looking crew of men, who went about the wards without collars, and who utilized "strong arm" methods in the control of patients. Many of the patients had black eyes as a result of tussles with their supervisors. Over many of the beds there had been placed wire cages and the patients beneath presented the appearance of wild animals.

The majority of the patients admitted to the hospital in question, had been admitted via the jails of the province, even though they had committed no offence against society. The police, who were the guardians of these patients, knew nothing about psychiatry and devised methods for restraint that were reminiscent

Clarence M. Hincks, B.A., M.D., founded the National Committee for Mental Hygiene (Canada) in 1918, and since 1926 has been its General Director. From 1930-39 he was also General Director of the U.S. National Committee for Mental Hygiene, and has been Field Consultant to this latter organization since 1939.

of the Spanish Inquisition. As a result of the malhandling of patients, many of them died soon after admission.

This terrible state of affairs was immediately brought to the attention of the provincial government concerned and as a result, the National Committee was requested to make specific recommendations in regard to necessary reforms. This procedure was followed and in the space of three years the hospital in question became one of the very best in Canada. There was introduced the training of nurses, the utilization of occupational therapy; the enlargement of medical staff; the prohibition of jail care for mental patients; the introduction of modern methods for examination and treatment, etc.

It was not until 1930 that humanitarian care in mental institutions in Canada became the rule rather than the exception.

SCHOOLS FOR MENTAL DEFECTIVES

Prior to 1924 little was done throughout the schools of Canada to identify mentally deficient children who could profit from specialized training. Between 1918 and 1930 the National Committee staff surveyed school children from coast to coast. It was demonstrated that 2% of all children in school attendance had intelligence quotients of 70 or less and a movement was started for the extensive organization of special classes for children with intelligence quotients of between 50 and 75. By 1930 more than 5,000 Canadian children

were being given training in accordance with their individual capacities, in Canadian schools.

There was also initiated during this period, the Canadian-wide development of residential training schools for mental defectives. Half a dozen provinces initiated such programs.

Prior to 1924 the Canadian public was apathetic to the whole question of mental illness and of mental deficiency. The public attitude was conditioned by misinformation concerning mental disabilities. The prevalent notions at the time were as follows: "once insane, always insane;" "insanity is a disgrace;" "much of insanity is due to syphilis;" (despite the fact that less than 10% of mental patients suffered from this type of venereal disease); "brutality among mental patients should be condoned because the only way to control excited states is through force," etc., etc.

To combat the inertia and misconceptions of the public there was launched in 1924 and earlier, a campaign of public education by the National Committee. Leaders in Canada became interested and made contributions to the National Committee to carry on campaigns of public enlightenment and to conduct province-wide mental hygiene surveys. By 1930 every province in Canada, at the request of the provincial governments concerned had been surveyed by the National Committee and many recommendations of the Committee had been put into practice.

BUILDING MORE HOSPITALS

In 1934 the institutional accommodation in Canada for the mentally ill and the mentally retarded was 34,866.

In 1944 the institutional accommodation had risen from 34,866 to 42,500—an increase of 21.8%.

It is now known that five beds are required in mental hospitals per 1,000 of the general population. At present, in 1948, we possess less than 3.5 beds per thousand. But the period of rapid expansion in the provision of mental hospital beds was between 1934 and 1944.

In regard to mental defectives, we now know that we require between 1.25 and 2 beds per thousand of the population. At present (1948) we possess less than one bed per thousand of the population. But again, rapid expansion in provisions of beds was between 1934 and 1944.

INTRODUCTION OF SPECIAL THERAPIES

Great advances were made in psychiatry during this period of 1934 to 1944 in the treatment of the mentally ill. There were introduced the various shock therapies (metrazol, insulin and electro) and as a result of the utilization of these shock or convulsive forms of therapy, the length of treatment for certain types of the major psychoses was reduced from a matter of months or years to a matter of weeks. Such a condition as schizophrenia or dementia praecox—responsible for filling 40 percent of mental hospital beds—if diagnosed early, could generally

be brought under control in a matter of six weeks. Other forms of severe mental illness also responded to the shock therapies.

Another great advance was made in the treatment of severe forms of mental illness during this decade through the introduction of prefrontal lobotomies. In this regard brain surgery was utilized to sever certain connecting fibres in the prefrontal lobes and the results were sometimes spectacular. Patients, for example, who had suffered for years from agitated depressions, and for whom the shock therapies were not effective, frequently improved to such a degree that prolonged life in the hospital became tolerable, and in more than 25 percent of cases, return home could be achieved.

The introduction of shock therapies and lobotomies brought psychiatry to the attention of the entire medical profession and indeed, to the general public. Thus the old false dictum that "once insane, always insane" began to disappear when mental illness was discussed in either professional or lay groups. It became apparent to everyone that psychiatry was moving forward and an impetus was given to the further development of all forms of psychiatric treatment.

Partly as a result of psychiatric experience gained during the second world war, an increased amount of attention was given by the medical profession to the neuroses or so-called nervous disabilities. The neuroses are approxi-

mately five times as prevalent as the major psychoses (pronounced mental illness) and are responsible for an enormous amount of invalidism. These neuroses, comprising anxiety states, extreme fatigability, impulsiveness, and hysterical reactions are almost as prevalent as the common cold. Years before, Sigmund Freud had made basic discoveries in regard to the neuroses but the application of his findings had not been great in Canada or the United States prior to 1939. During the second world war, Freud's contribution was taken into account by military psychiatrists and, since the war, civilian psychiatrists have, in the main, adopted a Freudian or analytic outlook in regard to the neuroses. As a result, tens of thousands of patients with neuroses or nervous breakdowns are now under enlightened treatment.

BIRTH OF PSYCHOSOMATIC MEDICINE

It was during this period that a woman psychiatrist, Dr. Flanders Dunbar of New York City, conducted work at the Columbia Medical Centre that laid the basis for psychosomatic medicine. Flanders Dunbar and her followers have demonstrated that in practically every case of illness there are significant emotional factors, and that unless these factors are taken into account it may be impossible to discover the essential data concerning causation of the particular case of illness under review, and it may also be impossible to institute comprehensive

and thorough-going treatment.

Since the birth of the mental hygiene movement 37 years ago, there has always been the pious hope that programs would be developed for the promotion of positive mental health among all sections of the population, not alone for the prevention of mental and nervous disabilities but for the augmenting of the happiness, efficiency and wholesome group-living of everyone. But it was not until a decade ago that much was achieved in the laying of solid foundations for comprehensive positive mental health programs.

Between 1934 and 1944 much was done in the realm of childhood to fortify the mental health of school children, of pre-school children, and of infants. One of the leading organizations to pioneer in this direction was the National Committee for Mental Hygiene (Canada) with demonstrations in Toronto, Montreal, Saskatoon, and other Canadian centres. As a result of these pioneering efforts, programs for positive mental health are now becoming integrated into our school systems in Canada, into the work of our well-baby clinics, and into the training of expectant mothers.

During the period under review psychiatrists discovered that by themselves they could do little in either a therapeutic or a preventive way. It became obvious that partnerships must be developed with social workers, psychologists, teachers, doctors, leaders in industry, and officers in the Armed

Forces. Fortunately, psychiatrists found little difficulty in establishing these partnerships, and the history of mental hygiene from now on will be bound up with co-operative work between various professional groups.

THE LAST FIVE YEARS

Prior to the second world war the field of mental hygiene was viewed as interesting and important. It was not, however, until the recent post war years that leaders in many walks of life began to realize that mental hygiene was faced with the most significant challenges and the greatest opportunities in regard to the future of our civilization. The fact began to strike home that mental health was even more important than physical health.

In 1947 the National Committee for Mental Hygiene (Canada) made a blueprint to set forth desirable developments over the next ten-year period for the fortification of the mental health of our four million children in Canada. This blueprint indicated the steps that must be taken to develop 75 child guidance clinics; to furnish intensive mental hygiene training for two thousand selected school teachers; to provide two summer courses in mental hygiene for ten thousand school teachers; and to recruit and train the necessary numbers of psychiatrists, psychologists, psychiatric social workers and other professional personnel for a long-range children's program. This blueprinting was en-

dorsed by leaders in medicine, education and social work and steps have been taken to put the program into effect.

In June, 1948, the Rt. Hon. W. L. Mackenzie King announced in the House of Commons that \$30 million a year would be appropriated by the Federal Government for the financing of health activities, and that of this amount a beginning grant of \$4 millions had been "earmarked" for mental health. Through the wisdom of the Hon. Paul Martin, Minister of National Health and Welfare, and his colleagues, the \$4 million grant for mental health was made available for "new" work in mental hygiene. A priority was given to finance the training of mental hygiene personnel, to further public education, and to aid in preventive work.

In this brief epitomization of mental hygiene developments during the last quarter of a century, I have presented a few items to indicate lines of progress that have been made to date. While much has been achieved the fact should be borne in mind that mental hygiene has merely scratched the surface of the possibilities which exist in this vast field of endeavour. The chief tasks lie ahead and if significant progress is to be made it is not enough that the general public understand the importance of mental health. They must also cooperate wholeheartedly in the tremendous task of solving this problem, upon whose solution rests the whole future of civilization.

New Ways to Play—

A QUARTER CENTURY OF RECREATION

By ERNEST R. McEWEN

SPANNING a generation, the history of the Canadian Welfare Council parallels a period of almost incredible change in the recreational habits of Canadians.

In 1923 the closed-in car was a sensation and opened new vistas of holiday travel for adventurous souls. Rudolph Valentino and Gloria Swanson were the big movie thrills, and wild rumours were afloat that "talking pictures" would soon be shown in local movie houses.

Ten thousand radio licenses were issued in Canada. Present figure is 1,994,027. Babe Ruth was coming into his prime and Kathleen McKay of England won the tennis championship from Helen Wills. Canadians in 1924 downed 2,015,694 gallons of (undiluted) alcohol. 1948 figure: 9,320,388 gallons, with a spreading pattern of taverns and cocktail lounges.

No one in the middle and working classes had much time to consider the lack of organized recreation outside the home, because in 1923 the objectives set by la-

bour leaders were an eight-hour day and a 48-hour week, and not until 1925 was the 48-hour week actually introduced, in British Columbia. Even there it was con-

fined to industries other than agriculture, transportation and dock work. In 1926 Henry Ford startled the business world by announcing: "The country is ready for the five-day week."

In the wide rural stretches, in 1923, gasoline tractors were only beginning to put an end to the treadmill labour of farming with horses. At many crossroad points, halls were being built to accommodate the occasional public meeting, dance or social. Other recreation was related to work: the sewing and quilting bee for the ladies, the calf, hog and seed-growing clubs to teen-agers.

In bush and mining centres, recreational facilities were even more markedly absent. The logger played poker on Sundays hoping to build up his roll for an annual spree in town. The miner sometimes organized sports contests of



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the rougher sort, but these were only for Sundays and rare holidays.

By 1936, thirteen years later, recreation services in Canada had advanced to the stage where it could begin to look back upon itself. Though slim and partial surveys had been made, the first serious attempt to compile facts about Canada's recreational tastes and needs was the report of the Canadian Welfare Council in 1936, of which its author, Mrs. G. Cameron Parker, recently wrote:

"This report shows the freshness of a new movement. It pays tribute to the virility of the sports—skating, skiing, plowing matches and camping, to the variety of the crafts that stem from our many nationalities; to the influence of the libraries that reach out into our remote regions through mail, films and travelling bus units; to the richness of some university extension work; to the numbers of our clubs for art, handicrafts and drama; to the quality of the music festivals of our western provinces.

It is interesting to note that the strength and vigour of leisure time work in that period was nurtured by the voluntary agencies. Their small projects laid the ground work for today's large-scale expenditures in public recreation."

The report reflects the efforts put forward to meet the special recreation problems of the depression period: local and isolated efforts largely unsupported by any public financial or co-ordinating assistance; in the country much use of mail libraries for forced

leisure hours, in the cities, hostels and settlements for transients and the unemployed. A chart reveals only seven cities employing one or more full-time recreation workers, and public expenditure on recreation varied from \$2.46 per capita to 16c per capita.¹

In 1943 the Canadian Youth Commission undertook a two-year survey which resulted, in 1946, in the publication of a series of exhaustive and revealing reports on Canadian Youth. In *Youth and Recreation*, the Commission uncovered gaping evidence of inadequate facilities for leisure time pursuits. The studies throw into sharp relief the general barrenness of the recreational life of young Canadians.

The survey showed youth eager for clubs to join, sports to enjoy, arts to attempt, community centres to attend: "Those who have had experience with youth organizations speak well of them, but they are a small minority. On the whole, youth is critical of the programs offered by the churches, the usual pattern being a measure of enthusiasm at the start with a gradual fading of interest. Many youth, especially in medium size cities, look to the schools for help and are dissatisfied with the unused potentialities of tax-provided buildings and equipment. . . . Rural youth speak pitifully of their isolation and lack of facilities.

¹ Seventeen cities' budgets studied were: Victoria, Vancouver, Edmonton, Calgary, Regina, Saskatoon, Winnipeg, Toronto, Hamilton, Ottawa, London, Windsor, Quebec City, Saint John, Halifax, Charlottetown and Montreal. Nearly all money spent was on parks and playground facilities and services.



Canadians at Play

Photos by National Film Board, Pringle and Booth



ties."

Against this background of recognized need, Canadian recreation can set a record of spotty but in some cases brilliant achievement during the past short period of growth.

In the national field, there has been a steady development of national parks, with nationally administered recreation programs which are being steadily enriched. The CBC has a unique record of cultural service through such programs as Sports College of the Air, Citizens' Forum, Farm Forum, and many others. The National Gallery, operating on a very meagre grant, sponsors and encourages art appreciation and creative activity in centres all across the country. The National Film Board produces and distributes outstanding documentaries for use in recreational programs. Surprisingly, the government division of which most might be expected in this connection, the Division of Physical Fitness and Recreation of the Department of National Health and Welfare, is the most seriously curtailed by lack of staff and funds to provide² the technical and consultation services for which it is designed.

Of national scope, and leading the way among the private agencies, are the expanding services of

² The Federal Government makes available \$225,000 in grants to provinces on a per capita basis under a dollar matching agreement. British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island are in the scheme. The Division of Physical Fitness, Department of National Health and Welfare spend approximately \$25,000 on services to all provinces regardless of whether in or out of the fitness scheme.

the "Y's", the Boy Scouts, and the Girl Guides. A new development is the National Camp Training Centre, and increasing in growth and effective service are the Canadian Camping Association, the Parks and Recreation Association, the Canadian Citizenship Council, the Canadian Association for Adult Education and our own Recreation Division. All these exist on a national scale where only a few years back the field was nearly bare.

The first Canadian Recreation Congress, scheduled in Montreal next September, is the latest and probably most reassuring development of recent months. Numerous exploratory meetings with fitness and sports directors, adult educators, camp leaders, welfare workers, arts and crafts enthusiasts, resulted in an agreement to pool conference planning resources every second year to assure an event of high standard.

Creditable work is being done provincially by departments of education, welfare, agriculture, extension departments of universities, and others. Each of these departments have functioned pretty well on their own without serious effort toward co-ordination and joint planning with consequent overlapping and many obvious gaps. Provincially speaking, planning of adequate recreation services (libraries, arts, crafts, music, drama, sports, etc.) for all citizens, young and old, has been nobody's baby.

Seven provinces have entered

with the Dominion government into the joint physical fitness program. Ontario³ and Quebec⁴ passed up this scheme and are developing their own comparable systems. There have been high hopes that the physical fitness scheme might be broadened to include the wider range of recreation. Furthermore, it would be a means for co-ordinating and consolidating recreation services emerging from federal and provincial governments. There is a general reluctance by the wide recreation interests to jump under the fitness umbrella, especially since the financial bait is negligible.

Local recreation services have been substantially extended in the last three years. School boards, parks boards, playgrounds committees, and other local bodies have upped budgets and broadened the scope of activities. About 200 communities and counties now employ full time directors. Somewhere around 2,000 full-time workers are currently employed in Canada as against a mere handful before the war. It is also estimated that the public recreation movement has about 40-50,000 volunteer workers.

In rural Canada the school is becoming a focal point for community recreation. Most new buildings under construction are de-

signed for both school and community use. For example, the province of New Brunswick is well advanced with a project to build 50 school community centers to give complete provincial coverage. Each is equipped with library, auditorium, gymnasium, playground and sports field.

Tax-wise leaders in our towns and cities are also seeing the folly of building new centers leaving the school idle after four o'clock. Winnipeg, conscious of good values, erected four new schools last year, each equipped with a magnificent community wing providing an auditorium, gymnasium, nursery play centre and clubrooms.

Several immediate problems face Canadian recreation. Future progress will depend largely on how well they are overcome. All of them are symptoms of a spontaneous, many-headed movement characterized by a helter-skelter of evolving projects and services to fill a vacuum in Canadian life. To assure mature development, at least four major problems need to be met:

The first problem and most urgent one is the lack of trained leaders. A new profession of recreation is emerging in Canada due to the recent increased emphasis on public recreation. At present, there is no university course in Canada aimed at training community recreation directors. The recently established graduate courses in group work in schools of social work and undergraduate courses in physical education in

³ Ontario's Department of Education, Community Programs Section, spends approximately \$160,000 in grants to municipal recreation departments and about \$240,000 on adult education programs, field services, conferences, publications, citizenship training for new Canadians, etc.

⁴ Quebec in 1946 set up a social welfare and youth department which, among other things, administers the youth training scheme. Some financial help for youth recreation work is available through Dominion-Provincial Youth Training Scheme.

several Canadian universities are steps in the right direction; also the first course for community recreation directors, sponsored by the University of Toronto, Federation of Recreation Directors and Ontario Department of Education. Likewise, the Camp Training Center, the Banff School of Fine Arts and numerous other institutes and field seminars are a help. But there still remains a need for university courses of high calibre.

The second problem is relationships in recreation. Our present programs are commercial, public and private. Commercial recreation is by far the biggest factor in the scene—public and private efforts mere supplements. When we accept the objective of a fair measure of recreational opportunities for every Canadian regardless of age, sex, ability or economic status, it becomes a question of who can best provide what is required.

Our present programs fall largely into the entertainment category—lacking in creative opportunities. Creative opportunities, on the other hand, are either too expensive or geared to the above-average—the champion or potential champion, the artist or potential artist. The ordinary Joe is left to be a spectator.

Finance is problem No. 3. Citizens want and demand better recreation services than local property owners are prepared to pay for. It is not so much a question of there being no money: the major difficulty is in our present tax

structure. More money needs to find its way back to the community from provincial and federal governments.

A partial answer to the three problems listed appears in the fourth. Consolidation, co-ordination and overall planning is the insistent need of recreational services today. Not only economy but balance in Canada's recreation demands a solution to the present chaotic state of over-lapping programs, departments, commissions and divisions on the three government levels.

Responsibility is often divided among a number of boards or departments. Furthermore, the service too often fails to cover libraries, art galleries and museums. Programs are usually heavy on the side of education, physical fitness, parks and playgrounds. Similar overlapping holds on the provincial and federal levels. Consolidation of the public service at the three levels in one administration would be a tremendous help.

In twenty-five years we have come a long way. The music-lover listening happily to his CBC Wednesday Night may marvel with good cause at the excellence of much that we are doing. The small town boy may still look around him and find opportunities wholly lacking for his recreational development. Both make a fitting comment on our Canadian recreation movement—in some aspects brilliant, but with much, very much, still to be done.

Evolving Social Services in the Province of Quebec

By THE REV. GONZALVE POULIN, O.F.M.

SOCIAL assistance and social welfare in the Province of Quebec have shown remarkable progress during the past twenty-five years due to their spirit of continuity and their variety of form. To the sole institutional system which had existed in the Old Province from the year 1621 were added public welfare agencies (by the 1921 Public Assistance Act), as well as numerous professional social services (private agencies with professional staffs). In this short article only the most important historical stages of development will be discussed. These are: Denominational institutions, private charitable organizations and public welfare agencies.

DENOMINATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

The system of charitable institutions is still the most venerable and important form of social service in the Province of Quebec. This system is authentically French in style and inspiration.

In a letter written to the Récollet Father, Denys Jamet, in 1621,

Charles de Boues presents some idea of the type of institution which existed during the Old Régime when he requests that the Récollet Friary of Québec be set up to serve as "un séminaire de sauvages, un lieu pour exercer la charité envers les malades comme aussi une forteresse."* The general hospital type of institutions would best fulfil these multiple functions. We know that general hospitals spread in France during the reign of Louis XIV. The General Hospital of Quebec was inaugurated in 1685.

This hospital served successively or simultaneously, as a home for foundlings, a refuge for the aged and disabled, an orphanage, a military hospital, a school and mental hospital. This first type of institution which continued to develop until the year 1700 was characterized by concentration and centralization and harboured all the miseries which could not be alleviated by the family and the

*Sagard: *Histoire du Canada et Voyages*, T.I, pp. 75-76, Paris 1636.

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parish. The poor were considered then as invalids to be hospitalized or as rascals to be imprisoned.

The structure of this first institutional system was solid enough to support the development of the colony until 1760, to withstand the reversals of the war of 1760 and to hold up without any great changes until the beginning of the industrial revolution in the Province around the year 1850. A first financial crisis struck a heavy blow to these institutions when, with the change of regime in 1760, gratuities from the Kings of France were cut off, and, more markedly, when during the French Revolution in 1789 they lost most of their financial investments in France. The new government came to their aid in 1776 with a first subsidy granted to the General Hospital of Quebec. These public subsidies constituted nearly all public assistance granted by the government of Quebec until 1921.

A second stage of institutional expansion began with the urbanization of the Province. It was characterized by a deconcentration of the various services and a spatial decentralization. It was the era of large institutions for child welfare and of health services. This expansion is still going on in the field of hospital care.

A first effort at inter-institutional co-ordination brought about the existence of the "Association patronale des services hospitaliers", first established in the district of Quebec in 1944 and now tending to

spread out on the regional and provincial levels. The institutional system of our day seems more and more to approach, in its evolution, the school system. The institution has conserved its private and denominational character, its autonomous and religious administration which it has had since the Old Regime. It fulfils more and more a function which is uniquely public and financed by the State. Its personnel, in becoming professional, includes an ever-increasing number of social workers, educationists and technicians.

PRIVATE CHARITY

In addition to the vast welfare institutions of Quebec of which Garneau, the historian, wrote that, "ils font encore aujourd'hui l'étonnement de ce pays",* private charity of the outdoor type has been practiced from the very beginning of the colony under various but constant forms.

One of the most characteristic types of private charity practiced under the Old Regime was the "Bureau des pauvres", which traces back to France of 1536, and which was established in Quebec as early as 1688. Its aim was to enforce the old regulations prohibiting mendicity and to help the poor. The 1688 order of the Superior Council of Quebec decreed the establishment of these bureaux in towns and rural parishes. It constitutes a veritable Charter of

*Garneau: *Histoire du Canada*, Tome 1, p. 85, Paris, Alcan, 1913.

Assistance. It is no exaggeration to say that these "Bureaux des pauvres" were the origin of our modern public assistance agencies.

These "Bureaux des pauvres" existed until 1760. They were then replaced by parochial committees for assistance to the poor.

With the founding in Canada of the Saint Vincent de Paul Society, as early as 1846, these parochial committees ceded place to parochial branches of the Society. Other organizations specialized in assistance to abandoned children.

These private charity organizations raised their own funds and sometimes received limited aid from public authorities. This structure of outdoor relief served the French-Canadian milieu until the crisis of 1929. But the number of unemployed to be assisted at that time burst the bounds of these organizations despite the large municipal grants accorded the Saint Vincent de Paul Society. Because of that tragic disorder, the social authorities of Quebec found it necessary to study the techniques developed in English-Canadian centres. The techniques and methods of professional social work which were also flourishing in the United States were gradually introduced into the Province of Quebec and here constituted a new and dynamic form of social assistance and rehabilitation.

So it is that, with the support of English-Canadian technicians, the French-Canadians founded in 1938 the Bureau d'Assistance So-

ciale Aux Familles in Montreal for the relief and welfare of families. This example was followed in Quebec in 1943 when the Service Familial de Quebec was founded. These new professional services gave rise to ideas of prevention, of rehabilitation and of co-ordination which were soon to have an influence upon the institutions as well as the volunteer agencies. These services as well as the institutions, are now attempting to solve the difficult problem of co-operation and integration with the public services. In fact, the private agencies faced with inadequate public assistance are presently carrying a burden which is much too heavy for their financial possibilities and which, consequently, limits their field of action.

PUBLIC WELFARE SERVICES

Until 1921, the Provincial government played a limited role in the field of assistance. This can be reduced to an ensemble of subsidies which were more or less unco-ordinated. The sources of progress emerged from institutions and private agencies which found in their high religious ideal and in their permanent contact with new miseries the strength of renewal and adaptation.

With the ever-increasing volume of relief, the unco-ordinated functions of private agencies and an arising concern for the general welfare, the Provincial government assumed the responsibility

for introducing the Public Assistance Act of 1921 into the statutes.

This Act established a classification of those assisted and, at the same time, fixed the financial responsibilities of institutions, of municipalities and of the Provincial government. This new distribution set one-third of the expenses to be borne by recognized institutions, one-third by the municipalities and the remaining third by the government. A Department of Public Assistance was set up and entrusted to the Minister of Public Health.

With the development of social security and social assistance, the Provincial government has found it necessary to co-ordinate its services and, in 1946, it set up a Department of Social Welfare charged with provincial administration of social assurances and with organizations for meeting some of the welfare needs of the youth.

Another step towards co-ordination in the field of child welfare is the Children's Protection Act of 1944 which has not yet been put into force because of certain terms unacceptable to the philosophy and traditions of social assistance in Quebec.

The municipal welfare departments show a tendency towards assuming the actual functions of private agencies, especially in the public health field, e.g., the "Gouttes de lait", in Montreal. Certain municipalities have organized their agencies on a profes-

sional basis. The Provincial Government seems to be gradually abandoning its role as grantor of subsidies, which it has played until quite recently. It is aiming at social prevention and rehabilitation, as in its present campaign for health services, and in the recent establishment in Montreal of an agency for the rehabilitation of the injured under the direction of the Department of Labour.

This policy lacks, for cohesion, a more numerous technical and professional personnel and, especially, an organization of orientation and co-ordination. This organization could be called the Superior Council of Welfare. Its functions of research and improvement could be related to those of the Superior Councils of Education and Labour.

The evolution of private agencies, of semi-public institutions, and of public services in the Province of Quebec during the past twenty-five years has determined their respective functions. The establishment of a co-ordinating organization would result in an integration of the actual asset for a progressive policy of welfare. Is this not the culmination and deepest significance which should evolve from the autonomist movement in the field of assistance: a keener sense of local responsibility for the human progress of the population and for more efficient co-operation between the private and the public services, at the various stages of our national life?

Citizens Plan for Welfare

By DOROTHY KING

“**A**VOID the vice of over-organization”, advised Owen Lovejoy, prominent child welfare worker of the United States, speaking at the Fourteenth Meeting of the Canadian Conference on Charities and Corrections held in Winnipeg in 1913. “In the course of time, if it seems wise to you to organize a body in the Dominion, which shall represent not only ‘Charities and Corrections’ but the entire range of public service and public welfare, would it not be possible to build the whole thing into one and simplify your organization?” The answer to his question is contained in this twenty-fifth anniversary of *Canadian Welfare*.

The development of community planning for welfare in Canada may be said to fall into four main divisions.

THE PERIOD OF INDIVIDUALISM

In the agencies born of the Charity Organization and Settlement movements, which reached this country (from Britain by way of the United States) at the turn of the present century, community planning for social welfare was recognized as a definite function. These agencies together with a

number of children’s aid societies, dating from those formed under the Ontario Children’s Act of 1893, made a nucleus from which various types of welfare effort developed. Social planning, however, was confined to the larger cities.

By the outbreak of the First Great War the organization of social welfare in the Dominion had hardly commenced. Some poor relief and institutional care, a handful of voluntary social agencies in the larger cities and the neighbourliness of pioneer communities met the most pressing situations in an individualistic, sporadic fashion. During the war the civilian social agencies of Canada functioned with minimum activity, but when the country had dealt with the first problems of civil reestablishment and weathered the unemployment crisis of 1921-22, revived concern with social planning was apparent.

CO-ORDINATION OF SERVICES

Early in the 1920’s the pattern of central planning and central financing of voluntary social work, through councils of social agencies and community funds, aroused Canadian interest in a type of development which to-day is general

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throughout the country. Community planning was, therefore, under way, when in 1924 the Canadian Council on Child Welfare first issued the *Canadian Child Welfare News* (now the well-known *Welfare*) in the hope of encouraging "Canada's greatest need" in social work, "national vision and national activity". The history of community organization in the welfare field in Canada from this time is closely bound up with the history of this Council. Appointed in 1920 by the Dominion Council of Health to deal with the needs of the child, the Welfare Council sought to influence legislation, to give support and encouragement throughout the country to groups concerned with children, and to offer clearing house and advisory services of all kinds.

In 1929, on the representation of leading Canadian social agencies, the Canadian Council on Child Welfare agreed to expand its program to include family welfare, thus taking the first formal step toward a national council of social agencies. A rapid growth of community planning followed, stimulated in large measure by the activities of the Council (led by its able and energetic first executive director, Miss Charlotte Whitton). Studies and surveys were undertaken in most provinces of Canada, resulting in a great extension and reorganization of services.

PUBLIC SOCIAL SERVICES

With the onset of the Great Depression of the 1930's and the re-

sultant terrific strain on voluntary social work, the Council, of necessity, focused its attention on the public services, particularly those concerned with the distribution of relief. As its reports and submissions testify, it played a large part in providing service and information in connection with the numerous federal and provincial inquiries of the period.

In 1938, in view of the broad concern of the Canadian Council on Child and Family Welfare with the whole field of the social services, the name Canadian Welfare Council was adopted. By this time, the picture was one of uneven development of community planning for social welfare on the local level. The provinces were administering Mothers' Allowance Acts and receiving grants from the Dominion Government towards old age pensions and unemployment relief. A few voluntary national agencies, such as the Y.M.C.A., the Y.W.C.A., and the Victorian Order of Nurses, were concerned with the standards and development of local units. For other agencies, both public and private, the clearing house and the consultation and liaison services of the Canadian Welfare Council were increasingly called upon. The amount of organized social work is still small. Only nine cities had Financial Federations or Community Chests, and thirteen, definite social planning bodies in the form of a Council of Social Agencies.

SOCIAL SECURITY AS A MAJOR CONCERN OF THE STATE

During the Second World War governmental regulations, designed to control local welfare activities, put a spotlight on community planning. Clear thinking with regard to "priorities" became essential. Coordinating Councils and Citizens Committees, sponsored by the federal Department of National War Services, found in some areas already well established Community Councils or Councils of Social Agencies.

During this period there grew up between the Federal Government and the voluntary services a partnership which involved a sharing of responsibility after the British fashion. In this association the Canadian Welfare Council put at the disposal of government all the experience and resources at its command. This led to constructive joint planning and action in the service of the nation. A heightened belief in democracy found expres-

sion in citizen interest in the Beveridge Report of 1942 and its Canadian counterpart, the Marsh Report of 1943. The formation of the Department of National Health and Welfare with the beginnings of a social security program, served to emphasize the rights of the common man.

Primarily an instrument of community organization, the Council, by democratic functioning, has secured and holds the loyalty of Canadian social agencies, acting as their representative at the national level. The Council has always been fortunate in the quality of its leadership and this remains consistently high as it faces still heavier responsibilities. The immediate tasks facing the Council require much delicacy and sureness of touch. These involve closer relationships with federal and provincial governments, with other national agencies in its own and related fields, and with organizations in the sphere of international welfare.

PLANNING'S STEPCHILD

RESearch is the stepchild of social planning. If too few funds are spent on social planning, even less is spent on operational research and practically nothing for experimental or basic research.

We not only have insufficient facts, but we often fail to make proper use of the ones we do have. Too much social planning activity is merely a shuffling of papers and committees because of the lack of basic data for discussion, data which help to clarify issues as well as raise them. The constant pressure of current and immediate problems prevents staff from devoting time to an adequate analysis of each matter as it arises. Let us agree that a major need in social planning organizations is to increase tenfold the amount of money devoted specifically to research in the basic social welfare problems of the community, in the analysis of the results of present service efforts, and the planning of long range improvements in community services.

—Arthur H. Kruse, Executive Secretary, Council of Social Agencies, Akron, Ohio, in *The Survey Midmonthly*, August, 1948.

VOLUNTEERS

IT WAS about twenty-five years ago that the Councils of Social Agencies and Community Chest movement was being mooted. At once, the citizen with wide community interests and an awareness of need was drafted into the planning for this new type of structure. Slowly but surely, and not without pain, the professional and the volunteer viewpoints were welded into a working whole. There was in the beginning a tendency for the professional social worker on the job to be left with the responsibility for policy and program, while the volunteer went out to raise the funds. But it was not long before the inevitable question arose: how could uninformed volunteers "sell" an agency to the public unless they knew the whole story?

To know the story, volunteers had to get down and dig, right through to the grass-roots of actual field experience. They rolled up their sleeves and worked right in the agencies along with, and under the supervision of, trained people. A new respect for the volunteer was born, and the volunteer accepted with sincerity, sometimes not unmixed with awe, the fact that the professional was in-

By GENEVIEVE L. PEMBROKE

deed an expert, but needed the volunteer's contribution.

To-day, in private social work as in the public assistance field, the volunteer citizen has an accepted place. No more striking example of citizen participation could have been demonstrated than in the World War II operations of the Dependents Board of Trustees, where some fifteen millions of public money was administered under the sole direction of committees of volunteer citizens for the welfare of the families of the fighting men. That these citizen committees of their own volition elected to consult the experts—the professional social workers—on their problems, was proof beyond a doubt that a true partnership had developed. Nor should it be forgotten that during the war, the Women's Voluntary Services movement in Canada was more or less "directed" by professional social welfare workers within the government service.

To-day the professional social worker and the often maligned volunteer together chart the course for the future of social welfare in Canada.

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By J. IRVING OELBAUM

“**E**VERYBODY gives—everybody benefits”—these four words symbolize the Community Chest movement. Chests, a development of the last thirty years, symbolize the growing participation of all members of a community in the welfare of their home-town. Giving and planning for total well-being are no longer being left to a handful of wealthy and influential citizens, but are now *everybody's* business.

Community Chests have become the medium for the voluntary expression of citizens' interest. While

Government has been assuming increasing responsibility for the economic aspect of social welfare, voluntary agencies, through Chests, have been doing constructive work in helping to solve human problems in their local settings.

GROWTH OF CHESTS

The earliest centralized fund-raising programs in Canada were the Federations of Jewish Philanthropies in Montreal and Toronto, and the Federation for Community Service of Toronto, which were organized in 1917 and 1918. Win-

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nipeg followed in 1922 with the Federated Budget Board. The Financial Federation (now Welfare Federation of Montreal) was also organized in 1922. These early federations in Montreal and Toronto were not all-inclusive, non-sectarian Chests, but rather federations of agencies representing one section of the community.

During the last twenty-five years, from 1923 to 1948, the number of community chests has grown to forty-eight, operating in communities from Victoria to Halifax.

INFLUENCE OF WAR ON CHESTS

The war years 1939-1945 saw a great acceleration in the growth of Chests, 24 new Chests—half of the present total in Canada—being organized in that period. While Canada did not have the development of the all-inclusive war chest which grew up in the United States, a number of Canadian Chests included the war-time activities of the Salvation Army.

GIVING IS GROWING

It is difficult to compare 1923 to 1948 in giving. Communities have grown. Standards of giving have changed. Our sights have been raised. However, if we compare the funds raised by the early Federations with the amounts they are receiving to-day, we find that in 1923 the Federated Budget Board of Winnipeg raised \$382,898. In 1948, it raised \$459,382. In 1923 the Montreal Federation of Jewish Philanthropies raised \$144,000. In 1948 it raised \$356,675. The Financial Federation of Montreal (now Welfare Federation) raised \$437,573 in 1923; in 1948 \$1,082,000.

In Toronto, another pioneer city in the community chest movement, the Federation for Community Service, the Federation of Catholic Charities and the Federation of Jewish Philanthropies pooled their efforts in 1943 to form the United Welfare Chest, which has since changed the name to that of the Community Chest of Greater Toronto. In 1918 these Federations (at that time the Federation for Community Service included the Federation of Catholic Charities) separately raised a total of \$335,000. Their combined efforts in 1943 for 1944 needs reached \$1,614,837. In 1947 for 1948 they raised \$1,962,851.

In 1947, 43 campaigns raised \$8,709,036 for the 1948 needs of 681 agencies across Canada. The amounts ranged from the \$12,000 collected in Belleville, Ontario, to the aforementioned \$1,962,851 in Toronto. The average per capita contribution was \$1.93 covering a total area population of 4,503,704 citizens of every walk of life in small and large cities in Canada.

ROLE OF CANADIAN WELFARE COUNCIL

In September, 1939, the month that war was declared, what is now the Community Chests and Councils Division of the Canadian Welfare Council was formed as the Central Committee of Community Chests and Councils in Canada. At the beginning, the five C's, as it became known, was a separate organization, conducting its work from the office of the Canadian Welfare Council. Its major role was to represent Community

Chests to government departments and keep home front agencies in the fore during a time when appeals for war services were multiplying. In May, 1942, the Board of Governors of the Canadian Welfare Council was petitioned by the five C's to incorporate them as part of the Council. This request was favourably accepted and the Community Chests and Councils Division of the Canadian Welfare Council came into being. This Division acts as a national clearing house for Chests and Councils, and as a liaison for them with Government bodies and officials. It also promotes the exchange of research and study material on social needs and services, and provides help in developing Chests and Councils.

AGREEMENT WITH C.C.C.

The Canadian Welfare Council recently consummated an important agreement with Community Chests and Councils of America, Inc., New York. A membership plan went into effect January 1, 1949, which provides that Canadian Chests, Funds and Federations and Councils of Social Agencies or Welfare Councils, members in good standing of the Canadian Welfare Council, become full members of C.C.C., New York. This makes available to Canadian Chests and Councils the usual services given by the American organization to their members.

RED FEATHER SYMBOL

The Community Chests of America—Canada and the United States—have adopted the Red



Feather as their symbol because through the centuries it has stood for chivalry and has been the badge of generosity and courage. The circle of twelve maple leaves surrounding the Red Feather in the Canadian symbol represents the year-round service provided by Canada's social welfare agencies.

SUMMARY

The early years of Canadian Chests, as those who can remember their beginning will recall, were concerned with reducing a multitude of campaigns. Business-men and community workers saw the advantages and economies of centralized fund-raising and administration. As they became effective in money-raising, it was realized that fund-raising and budgeting had to be accompanied by sound planning. Community Chests have therefore recognized as a primary concern the development of the best possible social welfare and health program for the community.

This development has been the result of a fortunate combination of welfare and business, of lay and professional worker, of agency and Chest, of the individual and the community. Symbolized by the Red Feather, the Community Chest has become part of our democratic way of life in nearly fifty cities in Canada.

PROGRESS IN THE CARE OF CHILDREN

By ROBERT E. MILLS

THE time honoured attitudes to social need and social service that were still current in 1924 among all but the most enlightened, now appear to us to be simple to the point of crudity.

Broadly speaking, the needs traditionally recognized were for such tangible commodities as material relief and institutional care. Protection of children was from the more obvious forms of cruelty and neglect, and consisted very largely of threats of prosecution and of permanent removal of children from their parents when "warnings" failed to protect. Non-institutional placement of children was in families by free "indenture", which was believed to relieve the organization of financial and social responsibility by unloading both onto the foster parents.

Through the preceding decade and a half, however, a new light had been kindled in some of the more socially conscious centres. Leaders in child welfare had begun to realize the importance of family life and the social need for

preserving it wherever possible. Ways and means were being sought to remove the necessity for children leaving their homes and parents. The family case work ideas of the Mary Richmond type had recently been introduced and beginnings had been made in putting them into operation and mothers' allowance and unmarried parents' legislation had been enacted in several provinces.

The new emphasis upon family life implied the desirability of foster homes rather than institutions for children whose own homes could not be enabled to care for them adequately.

As late as 1924 most Children's Aid Societies and Departments had only the vaguest idea of their position in this regard. When asked how many children they were



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caring for they almost invariably counted only those in the shelter plant. Their other wards were placed out by written agreements and were thought of as the responsibility of their foster parents. In many cases their locations and even their numbers were unknown. One of the largest children's aid societies in Canada refused for over a year to pay a foster mother for boarding one of its wards because the municipality concerned refused to pay the society.

A major campaign of the early years of the period under review was to bring guardian societies to accept the full responsibilities and duties of good parents for their wards and, likewise, to induce non-guardian organizations to accept corresponding duties of complete and adequate care as delegates of the parents or guardians.

The insistence upon family homes for homeless children was a phase of this new awareness. But the impossibility of meeting all such needs of all the neglected and dependent children in care by means of free indenture homes soon became apparent. There had always been a residue of defective and otherwise undesirable children found to be unplaceable in free or wage homes and, as the standards of what was expected of a foster parent rose, the numbers of children unplaced increased embarrassingly. The advocates of family home care insisted that these less attractive boys and girls were in need of real homes as much as their more fortunate comrades. Board-

ing in paid foster homes was the obvious answer.

The Infants' Homes of Toronto entered upon its remarkable career in boarding home care of babies in 1920 and the Children's Aid Society of Toronto made its demonstration of organized boarding of older children in 1924.

While the challenge of child boarding attracted the best trained and most progressive people in the child care field, the institutional type of personnel and program remained comparatively static. This, together with the vigorous propaganda necessary to launch the innovation, has had the result in Ontario and some other parts of the Dominion of institutional care being badly discredited and family placement being somewhat oversold.

The second great war brought high living costs, acute housing shortages, and greatly increased industrial employment of women, all of which made it very difficult for the placing agencies to obtain sufficient suitable foster homes. Of course, it was the less desirable children who were most difficult, if not impossible, to place out. This highlighted the fact, which for some time had been impressing itself upon the more thoughtful, that boarding home care is not necessarily well suited to every "homeless" child and that institutions, properly conceived and conducted, have some important functions that cannot be performed as well by family boarding homes. As usual, the pendulum had swung

too far. At this moment, in various parts of Canada, there is considerable interest in the possibility of developing small technically staffed institutions especially for the treatment of definitely mal-adjusted children.

The development of organized boarding in families inevitably was accompanied by a new sense of agency responsibility. Close supervision of the paid boarding home was substituted for the legal agreement as the means of protecting the child. The realization spread rapidly that the "indenture" agreement was primarily protection for the agency if something went wrong. Nevertheless it was not until 1944 that the Ontario legislation was amended that required that all placements of wards in families must be by such written agreements, and then over the protest of some of the older school.

MORE USE OF PSYCHIATRY

A natural development in the personalization of the work for children was the greatly increased use of psychology and psychiatry. In 1924 practically all such specialized service that was available to agencies was from a few clinics and consisted almost entirely of intelligence testing that labelled the child as feeble-minded or not. As a rule even the highly favoured agencies were able to submit only selected cases in which they suspected mental defect or disease, and these usually ones where assistance in obtaining certification for custodial care was desired.

As the ability of these specialties to help increased, the need for routine examination including some personality study of all children in care became apparent. In 1925 the Toronto Society appointed a full time psychiatrist to its staff, who was followed two years later by a teaming-up of psychologist and physician in such routine and special examinations, with referral to a psychiatric clinic in selected cases. Since then most child placing agencies in Canada and many children's institutions have made some arrangement for expert assistance in these fields, the creation of de-centralized clinical services in some of the provinces helping greatly in the process.

Possibly the chief contribution has been toward the training of child welfare staffs. The writer recalls an occasion 'twenty odd' years ago when he told his field workers that the time was coming when they would have to know more of child psychology than did the psychologists of that time or they would not be able to hold their jobs. That prophecy appears to be amply justified and the psychologists and psychiatrists are co-operating manfully to keep our case workers abreast of these aspects of their work.

A special contribution to child care from the psychologists was the parent training group movement and Canada can claim leadership in its application to the training of foster parents. From 1931 until the outbreak of hostilities the Children's Aid Society of

Toronto was the outstanding exponent on this continent of parent discussion group work as a supplement to the case supervision method of training foster parents. The Hamilton society also developed a notable piece of work as did several other agencies across Canada. Unfortunately most of these activities were suspended because of the pressures of war upon both staffs and foster parents.

Another great contribution from the psychologist was the development of the nursery school and from it the modern versions of the day nursery and the day care centre, which are educational insti-

tutions rather than just parking places for children. This program came into its own during the war period when, to encourage mothers to accept employment away from home in the national emergency, a Dominion-Provincial agreement established some 35 wartime day nurseries of good quality along approved psychological lines, 29 of which were in Ontario and the remainder in Quebec. Many of these have carried over into the post-war production period, in Ontario with provincial-municipal support, and bid fair to set a sound pattern for a future extension of our public system of education.

CHILD WELFARE IN CANADA

THEN

New York Times, July 11, 1924

Means of Safeguarding Immigrant Children Considered.

The Canadian Council of Child Welfare has issued the first number of a bulletin called Canadian Child Welfare News. This bulletin gives a summary of child welfare activities in the various provinces and also includes general information about different phases of work for children in Canada.

The following figures for the Canadian registration area for 1922 are given: Birth rate per 1,000 population, 25.1; infant mortality, 86.8 per 1,000 living births; maternal mortality 5.5 per 1,000 living births; general mortality (average crude rate per 1,000 population), 10.5. Other interesting figures relate to juvenile delinquency and mothers' pensions. There were, it is stated, 6,298 juvenile delinquents in Canada in 1922. Mothers' pensions were paid during the last year to 6,786 mothers for 19,350 children, the total sum paid monthly averaging \$254,790.25. Five provinces have passed mothers' pension legislation.

Activities of various social welfare agencies are also outlined in the bulletin. It is reported that the standing committee on child welfare of the Social Service Council of Canada intends to make during 1924 full descriptive studies of two or three small towns and the rural district surrounding each other in order to discover and record all conditions affecting child life to a considerable degree. Means of safeguarding immigrant children and the proper selection of such children are subjects occupying the attention of the immigration committee of the council.

NOW

In 1949 the welfare of children continues to be a major interest of the Canadian Welfare Council. In the twenty-five year period just past, tremendous advances have been made in providing services to children under both public and private auspices. At the federal level, Family Allowances came into effect in 1945; eight Provinces have a Child Welfare Division as an integral part of their public welfare structure, in some instances giving direct service to children and in other provinces giving leadership and financial support to privately directed programs; in local communities Children's Aid Societies and other welfare organizations are working to improve the conditions under which children live and grow up. Their development during these years has been marked by consistent efforts to improve their standards and services and to secure qualified staff.

Statistics for the year 1947 provide some indication of the progress that has been made. For 1947, the birth rate per thousand of population was 28.6, the infant mortality 45 per thousand live births, the maternal mortality rate 1.5 per thousand live births and the general mortality rate per thousand of population was 9.4.

In 1947, there were 7,545 convictions of juveniles between the ages of 7 and 15. Mothers' allowances were paid during 1947 to 29,540 mothers for 75,138 children, the total sum paid monthly averaging \$926,637. Mothers' allowances legislation is in force in eight of the nine provinces.

In the Child Welfare Division of the Council, interest is still centered on those services which will ensure a good standard of protection and care for all children whose needs cannot be fully met by their own parents.

Safeguarding the Family

By MARJORIA L. MOORE

CONCERN is expressed about what is happening to the family. This is natural because throughout world history the wellbeing of society's basic institution has always been important. Is it surviving the strains caused by depression and war?

Through the nineteenth century the family *was* the community, providing its members with work and shelter, food and companionship, clothing, education and religion. But no longer is the family an independent world of its own, and everywhere thoughtful people ask whether the modern man, woman and their children can survive as "a family" under changed modern conditions. To help them do it, during the past fifty years in Canada groups of private citizens have formed family welfare agencies. Administered by volunteer boards, and financed by voluntary contributions, these family bureaus have two main purposes: to give individualized service to families; and, to co-operate with and help develop activities to correct and relieve social conditions which blight family life.

Our oldest Canadian family agency is the Family Welfare Association of Montreal, founded in 1899 under the name, Charity Organization Society. The newest is the Catholic Welfare Bureau of Windsor, established in 1947.

Twenty-five years ago, family welfare programs were confined to a limited number of families in the larger centres of population. Today there are 40 family welfare agencies located in both large and small cities, and a growing recognition that family service must be nationwide and reach both the urban and rural population. There are a number of sectarian family welfare agencies offering counselling and case work services to the people of their own faith. The church, which developed the first concepts of welfare work, is today offering modern methods of help to its own people. Case work services to families are also found in the more advanced municipal and provincial public welfare services.

A quarter century ago, agency services were primarily to those in the low income group, but as the skills of case work broadened, ser-

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vices have been extended to a much wider group. Today, the services of the majority of the family agencies are available equally to people in all walks of life, regardless of economic and social status, or religious belief. As programs expand, and services become more specialized, there is interest in and limited experience with service on a fee basis, to emphasize the fact that the agencies are offering a skilled professional service which can be used without discomfort by the entire community.

Looking backward to depression and later years, we see family agencies helping to develop skills in the use of material relief, focusing public attention on the need for public funds, and administering municipal relief grants in cities where essential public welfare services were not organized.

Full support has been given by family agencies to local Welfare Councils and Community Chests in their programs to raise adequate private funds and to extend social planning to the entire community.

Canadian family welfare agencies lent their support to the founding of Schools of Social Work and continue to give in-service training.

Because they have first-hand knowledge of family breakdown, they have throughout their history urged the establishment of properly staffed family courts and have worked co-operatively with them.

Family agencies took over heavy responsibilities during World War

II when they accepted responsibility for investigations for the Department of National Defence and administration of allowances for incompetent dependents, a particularly time-consuming task. Without question, their assistance to families of enlisted men in Army, Navy and Air Force was outstanding, especially as it was performed in spite of almost crippling staff shortages. It was a test of skill for private agencies to serve as agents of government and work in the public-private partnership which war services made necessary. Much was learned from it that was helpful in working out peace time relationships.

The objectives of family casework have remained relatively constant because they have always been concerned with meeting human needs, whether these arose from environment, from reactions of individuals to family situations, or from personal inadequacies, but methods of giving service have changed as caseworkers built up a body of professional knowledge.

Family welfare recognized the worth and dignity of the individual, and it is in this area of attitudes and emotional problems that caseworkers have most improved their skills and techniques. Psychology and psychiatry have contributed a great deal to this important development. Guidance and counselling, always functions of family agencies, are today putting increasing emphasis on psychotherapy. Psychiatry and social case work are both interested

in the healthy wholeness of human beings and one uses the skills of the other to help the troubled individual. In addition, family agencies continue to give budgetting, visiting homemaker, camping and routine casework services.

Traditionally, the family agency has concerned itself with the well-being of the child in the family, and in counselling the parent about the child. Now there is more understanding of the value of direct service to children as an integral part of family casework. This, coupled with a deeper understanding of the skills common to the family and the children's worker, is leading to increased interest in the possibilities of merged services. This means that respective roles of family and children's agencies are constantly under review.

The interest of family agencies in strengthening family life is further evidenced by the responsibility assumed by them for Institutes for Family Living, Education for Marriage, and Parent Education courses.

In May, 1944, the Canadian Welfare Council, which had long recognized the importance of family welfare agencies and their work, gave substantial additional support to them by setting up within the Council a separate Family Division. Through it, the family agencies of Canada, both French and English, speak with one voice.

As the family welfare movement looks toward the 1975 horizon, it reaffirms its belief in The Family as the heart and core of our democratic society.

WESTERN REGIONAL CONFERENCE ON SOCIAL WORK

THE planning committee of the Western Regional Conference on Social Work, which is being chaired by Laura Holland, announces that Victoria's Empress Hotel is the place, and May 2-5, 1949, is the time. Details of the program will be available soon.

BE zealous of one thing, and zealous for one thing: and that is that the self-expression of life, whether it be the life of the worker, the potential volunteer, or of the community or of the struggling family, shall ever have the fullest, freest opportunity, shall never be limited or hampered by set moulds, by blind kindness, by mistaking for life either a perfectly logical system of social service or economic independence or perfect health. For life is even at its worst a rose mesh entwining an everlasting spirit.

—Francis H. McLean.

Education for Social Work

By MARJORIE J. SMITH

PROFESSIONAL education for social work has a history reaching back not much more than fifty years. The forces stimulating the development of training became apparent in England and on this continent at about the same time.

In Canada, social work education, receiving its stimulus from the developments in England and the United States, had a beginning in Toronto in 1914. Unlike the United States, where most of the early Schools arose from the efforts of workers in the field and operated as private training schools, in Canada the development has come largely within the universities. All Canadian Schools of Social Work but one began as a part of a university and that one exception was sponsored by a group of colleges.

In 1913 in Toronto a meeting, encouraged largely by two organizations: The Social Workers Club and the Social Science Study Club (a lay women's organization), was held to discuss the need for training. A resolution came from that meeting and was presented to the Board of Governors of the Univer-

sity of Toronto. With the help of private funds, the first curriculum was established for the autumn of 1914. Twelve full time students were registered that year.

In Montreal, from 1913 to 1915 the Charity Organization Society of that city arranged a series of lectures for workers then employed. From these activities, interest was developed and representation was made to McGill University in 1915 asking that a training course be established. It was not until 1918 that the Board of Governors of the University took action and in 1919 the McGill University Department of Social Service was opened. In August 1931, the University decided to discontinue the training on the basis of shortage of funds, and the department officially closed in 1932. The action of the University roused such a storm of protest that independent interests in the community formed a Committee on Social Work Training and, with many difficulties and setbacks, did set up a new School outside the University incorporated as the Montreal School of Social Work.

Marjorie J. Smith is a graduate of the University of Minnesota and took her M.A. Degree at the University of Chicago. She is now head of the Department of Social Work of the University of British Columbia.

Thus in 1924, education for social work in Canada centered in two university departments: Toronto's school struggling continuously with the problem of frequent changes in directors, and Montreal's school striving to hold its place within the University. Both, however, had met the standards set by the American Association of Schools of Social Work and were members of that organization which had been established in 1919. The progress since 1924 has been steady, and in the last five years, almost spectacular.

In 1927, a child welfare survey in British Columbia conducted by The Canadian Council on Child Welfare, now The Canadian Welfare Council, recommended many changes in welfare organizations and programs. Although the survey did not specifically recommend the establishment of a training course, the emphasis on the necessity for qualified workers created an interest, particularly within the University of British Columbia. Certain faculty members took action aided by community groups and workers, and in the fall of 1928 the first courses in social work were initiated in the Department of Economics at the University of British Columbia. Three students were registered in that first year.

Eleven years passed before any further development in schools occurred. In the Province of Quebec, the depression years were difficult ones for the French-speaking population as for all others.

Out of the needs demonstrated in that period came the first French school of social work at the University of Montreal in 1939. Although organized within a French university, the School of Social Service is bilingual.

The Maritime Provinces, isolated in so many ways, felt for many years the need for social work training courses. From about 1936 certain extension lectures in social subjects had been available at Dalhousie University and Kings College, but it was not until 1941 that the Maritime School of Social Work in Halifax opened its doors with six students enrolled. The School is an independent corporation but has the cooperative backing of eight universities and colleges in the three Maritime Provinces.

The year 1943 saw the beginnings of two additional schools. The increasing need for qualified social workers among the French-speaking population produced a new department at Laval University in Quebec City, which soon became the Laval School of Social Work. About fifteen students were enrolled that first year. The great geographic gap between the University of Toronto School of Social Work in the east and the University of British Columbia Department of Social Work on the Pacific Coast was bridged in the autumn of 1943 when the University of Manitoba established its School of Social Work at Winnipeg. Designed to meet the needs of the Prairie Provinces, the School

at Winnipeg has figuratively joined hands with the University of British Columbia in an attempt to educate social workers for the newer Canadian pattern of public welfare in the west.

At the Canadian Conference on Social Work in Winnipeg in May, 1944, the representatives of four schools met and decided to form The National Committee of Canadian Schools of Social Work. This committee was to function as a clearing house among the schools and to enable the faculties of the schools, as the first chairman, Miss Dorothy King, said, "to talk as a group of Canadian social work educators." The first full meeting of the Committee was held in Toronto in January 1945, to consider the matter of emergency plans to meet the growing shortage of social workers. In subsequent meetings, plans were laid and action was taken to secure financial assistance from the Dominion Government through the Department of National Health and Welfare. The first such assistance was made available to the extent of \$100,000 for the year of 1946-47. This fund was distributed on a combination of flat grant and pro rata basis to the seven schools of social work. During the years 1947-48 and 1948-49 the total sum available was \$50,000 each year. During the three years about half of the total money available was set aside for bursaries and scholarships.

The story of increasing numbers of students is of interest too. As

has been pointed out, in 1924 there were two struggling University Departments of Social Work. In 1939 there were three established training courses with a fourth just beginning in the University of Montreal. By that year the total enrolment in all schools amounted to about 100 full-time students. In 1945-46 the year before funds were available from the Dominion Government, there were seven schools with a total enrolment of 279 full-time students. In 1946-47, the first year of the grant from the Department of National Health and Welfare, the total enrolment was 401 full-time students. In the current year, 1948-49 the total enrolment of full-time students has reached 472. Other developments have been in proportion. Teaching and supervisory staffs have been strengthened and enlarged. Three schools (Montreal School which became a part of McGill University in 1945, Toronto, and British Columbia) are full members of the American Association of Schools of Social Work. A fourth, The University of Manitoba School, has been recommended for provisional membership in that association as a one-year school. All schools except Manitoba's and the Maritime School grant professional degrees on the completion of courses and both these schools have expressed an intention of doing so as soon as possible. All schools are established on a graduate basis.

The National Committee of Canadian Schools of Social Work

in its most recent meeting in October, 1948, has had to accept a new function of standard-setting in relation to new schools which might develop, and to the continuing membership of original charter members. Announcement has recently been made of the opening of a new school of social welfare at the University of Ottawa in 1949-50.

Along with the general progress which is obvious in all of the schools, it should be noted that each has preserved certain distinctive, individual characteristics. The Maritime School as its director states, is "a cooperative venture in the land of cooperative enterprise" and gives its attention to the varied and rural needs of the Maritime Provinces. The School at Laval University is interested in fitting social welfare concepts into existing and changing cultural, community patterns. The

McGill University School of Social Work operating as it does in the relatively small English-speaking community of Montreal has always emphasized the teaching of more specialized casework practice. The University of Montreal School of Social Work, with its bilingual program, is concentrating on meeting the need of metropolitan French-speaking populations. The School at Toronto University, as the oldest, carries with it certain traditional standards and the varied curriculum of the large urban school. The University of Manitoba directs itself toward the needs of the Prairies. The University of British Columbia Department has been concentrating on a generic two-year curriculum in line with current developments in social work education and welfare practice. There is strength for the professional field of social work in that individualized and varied growth.

TO ASSURE THE FUTURE OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

AN ADVANCE toward more and better social work education in Canada was made in Ottawa during the week of November 15 when the Directors of the Canadian Schools of Social Work met to prepare a Brief to the Federal Government asking for continuation and enlargement of their federal grant.

The new proposal would enable the Schools to increase enrolment from 472 to 750 over a five-year period; it would provide for additions to and special training for the 87 full time faculty members now in the Schools; it would help the Schools to expand their training facilities to provide advanced training for workers who are needed for administrative, supervisory and consultant positions; it would make it possible for the Schools to participate more effectively in programs of training for workers in agencies.

The request for increased assistance from the Federal Government will also help the Schools to provide more adequate bursary assistance for promising students and will be especially necessary in view of increased living costs and the disappearance of D.V.A. support for a large proportion of students.

The present request of the Schools to the Federal Government will be heartily endorsed by welfare agencies across the country as an important method by which to meet the continuing unfilled demand for qualified social workers and the need to increase the skills of workers now employed. A five-year plan, which will facilitate planning by the Schools and the agencies to solve the personnel shortage, is a commendable procedure.

—K. Phyllis Burns.

ACROSS CANADA



Rehabilitation of Ex-Convicts

Careful placement in employment is the means of bringing about successful rehabilitation of hundreds of men and women discharged from Canada's penal institutions annually. The finding of suitable employment for parolees and those who have completed sentences in provincial jails and reformatories has become one of the major efforts of the Special Placements Division of the Employment Service. Special placement officers have been appointed for this purpose in all provinces.

Increased Social Aid Cost

The Government of Saskatchewan has announced that a 15 per cent increase in social assistance schedules for food and clothing will be shared by the government with urban and rural municipalities. A province-wide survey conducted by the social welfare department indicates that increased costs of commodities justifies this further assistance. At present some 8,500 persons are receiving assistance, half from the province alone and half on the shared basis.

Staff Training Programs

The keen interest in better qualified personnel that is one of the features of every health and welfare conference is showing results in a number of ways.

Saskatchewan is training institutional personnel, and courses are under way in the Boys' Industrial School, and are planned also for jail staffs. The Social Welfare Department is sponsoring the training with Dr. D. G. McKerracher, Commissioner of mental

services, responsible for the psychiatric conferences which are part of the training program.

As a result of new interests and skills developed by two recent institutes on "Principles of Body Mechanics", instigated by the Montreal Branch of the Victorian Order of Nurses as a staff project, a trained physiotherapist, Mrs. Beryl Smith, has been appointed to the Montreal Branch to assist the nurses in providing an even better standard of nursing and physical care for their patients. This is the first step of its kind in Canada, although many visiting nurse organizations in the United States employ physiotherapists.

A special scheme for the training of psychiatric personnel, including psychiatric social workers, is being undertaken by the School of Social Work, University of Toronto, with financial aid from the National Mental Health Grants. Since funds now available under the scheme must be spent by March 31, 1949, applications should be filed at the earliest possible date. Forms may be obtained from Miss Sophie Boyd, Executive Secretary, School of Social Work, University of Toronto.

Mental Hygiene

The Nova Scotia Society for Mental Hygiene celebrated its fortieth anniversary on December 3, 1948. It is the second oldest society of its kind in North America. Special speakers included Dr. J. D. Griffin of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, Dr. C. G. Stogdill of the Department of National Health and Welfare, and Dr. Charles Gass, President of the New Brunswick Mental Hygiene Council.

ABOUT



PEOPLE

Barbara Stancliffe, M.A. (Oxford), who is on leave of absence from her post as lecturer in Social Administration at the University of Manchester, has been appointed to the staff of the School of Social Work, University of Toronto, as special lecturer for the present year. This has been arranged by virtue of a scheme of the Graduate School whereby visiting lecturers may be brought to the campus.

Morton I. Teicher, who has recently been Chief of Social Service, Boston District of United States Veterans' Administration, has joined the faculty of the School of Social Work, University of Toronto on a half-time basis made possible by the Dominion Government Health Grants. He will also hold a half-time position as Chief Psychiatric Social Worker at the Toronto Psychiatric Hospital.

Donald Hurwitz, Executive Director of the Federation of Jewish Philanthropies and Combined Jewish Appeal of Montreal, is teaching the Public Welfare Courses in the McGill University School of Social Work this session. He has a long and varied experience in both public and private social work, and holds his Master's degree in Social Administration from the School of Applied Social Science in Western Reserve University.

Succeeding Mrs. Mina Barnes McIntyre as Executive Director of the Alexandra Neighborhood House is Harry Morrow, a

graduate of the School of Social Work, University of British Columbia. Mr. Morrow is a former chaplain and has been on the staff of Alexandra House as Assistant Director and Boys' Worker.

Dr. W. Stewart Stanbury succeeds Dr. Fred W. Routley as National Commissioner of the Canadian Red Cross Society.

Charles Fraser, a graduate of the Manitoba School of Social Work and formerly with the Manitoba Public Welfare Division, and latterly with the Child Welfare Branch, Saskatchewan, has assumed the duties of executive-secretary of the Children's Aid Society of Central Manitoba.

One of the Council's vice-presidents, the Hon. Judge Thomas Tremblay, Quebec City, has been appointed Chief Justice of the Court of Sessions of the Peace, Province of Quebec. He was formerly president of the Rural Electrification Board.

Sidney Maslen, a graduate of the New York School of Social Work, with extensive American experience in housing, juvenile delinquency and Y.M.C.A. work, has joined the staff of the Toronto Chest as secretary of the budget committee.

Doris Crawford, formerly with the Ottawa Children's Aid Society, has become Executive Director of Hamilton Big Sister Association.

Dorothy Barras, a graduate of the Toronto School of Social Work, is now with the Simcoe County Children's Aid Society.

In Memoriam

Vingt années durant l'honorable juge P. A. Choquette fut membre du conseil d'administration du Conseil Canadien du Bien-Etre Social. Il est disparu le vingt décembre dernier à l'âge de quatre-vingt quinze ans laissant la mémoire d'un journaliste, politicien et juriste qui s'intéressa toujours aux questions sociales, en particulier à la cause de l'enfance malheureuse. *WELFARE* se joint à la presse canadienne, pour rendre hommage à cet éminent canadien-français.

BOOK



REVIEWS

THE VALUES OF LIFE, by E. J. Urwick; Edited, with an introductory essay by John A. Irving. University of Toronto Press, 1948. 237 pp. Price \$3.50.

It is a happy coincidence that at the time of the twenty-fifth anniversary edition of *CANADIAN WELFARE* there should be published a book written by Professor E. J. Urwick, Head of the Department of Political Economy and Acting Director of the School of Social Work of the University of Toronto from 1927-1937. Professor Urwick stood for a solid foundation of history, philosophy and the social sciences as a background for more specialized training. Above all he taught and lived out an underlying philosophy which gives meaning and purpose to the whole.

In his last book, Professor Urwick set out in a series of short essays to examine and to weigh some of the accepted values of life. He assumes as the beginning that "there is one plain test of the excellence of any activity or end, namely the extent to which it leads us away from self-centred satisfaction and unites us with the ends or purposes of others, or with some reality which, for the time being at any rate, quite over-shadows the self."

One senses throughout the book Professor Urwick's longing, before "going on", to turn the thoughts

of young people towards those "ideals which are real". At one point he says, "And it happens (I speak as a teacher) that when we meet some of our former students in later years, the question at once suggests itself, 'Did this man sin, or his teachers, that he is going though life so blind, following false ends, devoting his powers to the pursuit of money or pleasure or sport, but apparently never lifting up his eyes to the hills which lead to more worthy and enduring values?'" And again, "Plato posits the existence in all men of a power far transcending reason, which is capable of finding its way directly to the secrets of reality. . . . But Plato makes very clear the condition imposed upon those who would attain to the power of intuition. Since the vision is the vision of the Good, the seer must himself be good. . . ." I believe this passage in its entirety is the heart of Professor Urwick's message, and indeed the secret of his own life.

SOPHIE R. BOYD,

*Executive Secretary, School of Social Work,
University of Toronto.*

THREE CENTURIES OF CANADIAN NURSING, by John Murray Gibbon and Mary S. Mathewson, R.N., B.S. Macmillan Company Toronto, 1947. 505 pp (Illustrated). Price \$4.00.

Beginning with the arrival in Canada from Dieppe on August 1, 1639, of

three members of the Order known as the Hospitallers of the Mercy of Jesus, who were the founders of the Hotel Dieu, Quebec, the authors trace the development of nursing through three hundred years to the present time. There are stories of supreme courage and endurance in the face of danger, hardship and pestilence evidenced by the members of these pioneer nursing orders whose activities encompassed the roles of missionary, nurse and social worker as they are understood in Canadian life today.

Certain influences brought about changes in nursing in the British Isles and the influence of Miss Nightingale's teaching there was quickly felt in Canada. The first training school for nurses was organized by Dr. Theophilus Mack assisted by two Nightingale nurses from England at the St. Catharines General and Marine Hospital in 1874. The Toronto and Montreal General Hospital Schools for Nurses followed in 1884 and 1890 respectively.

The war service of Canadian nurses discussed in this book include the Riel Rebellion, the South African War and World Wars I and II.

The organization of the Victorian Order of Nurses in 1897 and the development of visiting nursing receives fitting space in this book. The work of four V.O.N. nurses assigned to duty in

the Klondyke, 1898, is the subject of a colourful chapter.

The Canadian National Association of Trained Nurses was formed in 1908 and the organization was received into membership by the International Council of Nurses at London, England, in 1909. A few years later the name of this organization was changed to the Canadian Nurses Association.

Two surveys of nursing have shown that many problems exist with respect to nursing education and nursing service. This is not surprising in a country thinly populated and with the varied needs that are bound to exist in provinces as dissimilar as Alberta and Ontario.

With reference to post-graduate courses, it is recorded that the first one to be offered by a Canadian university was in 1919-20, while in 1947 eight Canadian universities were offering graduate study to qualified nurses in the fields of Administration, Education and Public Health.

In the attempt to cover such a wide field over so long and changeable a period, it is to be expected that some details will have been omitted. Be this as it may, the authors have given to nursing a valuable and welcome volume and to Canadians a book to be read with interest and pride.

EDNA L. MOORE,
*Director, Division of Public Health Nursing,
Department of Health, Ontario.*

In addition to regular subscriptions, over 3,800 copies of this well-documented, historical edition of CANADIAN WELFARE have been purchased for distribution both in Canada and abroad by libraries and schools, community chests and councils, universities, government departments and embassies.

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